

THE
CRITICAL REVIEW.

NOVEMBER, 1801.

ART. I.—*An Historical Tour in Monmouthshire; illustrated with Views by Sir R. C. Hoare, Bart. a new Map of the County, and other Engravings. By William Coxe, A.M. F.R.S. &c. In Two Parts. 4to. 4l. 4s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1801.*

WE have accompanied Mr. Coxe through many scenes of picturesque beauty as well as of historical research, and have uniformly found him a companion intelligent, instructive, and entertaining. We were pleased, therefore, to meet him nearer home, where these qualities must necessarily possess additional interest, from a local and more intimate connexion. He has styled his Tour '*historical*,' and he might have added the epithet of *antiquarian* also. We certainly have no right to dictate the line of his inquiries, or the kind of entertainment he means to provide for his guests; but we cannot avoid noticing that he draws us too frequently, and, in our opinion, sometimes too abruptly, from the contemplation of Nature, and her more sublime and rugged traits, to the deserted ruins of a castle, to its uninteresting records, or to the mouldering mutilated inscription on a monument. For a county history, it is neither sufficiently full nor minute; for a tour, it seems too historical and recondite.

In another point of view this opinion may appear too severe and fastidious. Mr. Coxe has repeatedly visited this county, in circumstances most favorable to investigation, and has received assistance which few travelers, or few historians, could have obtained. There is no reason then, it may be replied, why he should withhold these well-digested historical or antiquarian stores, because his work would not legitimately rank under any particular title, if they were inserted. It is now adapted to a variety of different tastes, and is in general so well executed, that he must be truly hypercritical who could morosely condemn or reject it. We shall do neither; but again travel over this interesting district, and give some account of the instruction and entertainment which readers of every description will receive from these volumes, less diffusely noticing what may not be very important to the general reader.

CRIT. REV. Vol. XXXIII. Nov. 1801.

S

Monmouthshire is, in many respects, an attractive spot. Strictly and naturally a part of Wales, it has long been an English county; but, abounding in commanding heights and defensible passes, it forms the chief defence, by land, of South Wales, and would greatly facilitate, in an enemy's hands, any inroads into the north of the principality. It has been secured, therefore, by castles and fortresses, is studded with remains of encampments, and has been the scene of many a well-fought action, or gallant defence, recorded by the historian.—Mr. Coxe's labours, in his investigation, we shall select in his own words.

‘The present work owes its origin to an accidental excursion into Monmouthshire, in company with my friend sir Richard Hoare, during the autumn of 1798. I was delighted with the beauties of the scenery; I was struck with the picturesque ruins of ancient castles memorable in the annals of history, and I was animated with the view of mansions distinguished by the residence of illustrious persons—objects which the sketches of my friend's pencil rendered more impressive.

‘On my return I examined my notes, perused the principal books relating to Monmouthshire, and, convinced that so interesting a county deserved particular notice, formed the plan of a tour, which should combine history and description, and illustrate both with the efforts of the pencil. Sir Richard Hoare strongly encouraged me in my undertaking, offered to accompany me again into Monmouthshire, and to supply me with additional views.

‘Accordingly, in the spring of 1799, I explored the county in various directions, and received assistance from many gentlemen and men of letters; but as the materials were still defective, and as want of time and unfavorable weather prevented me from visiting the sequestered and mountainous districts, I made a third excursion in the autumn of the same year.

‘In the course of these three journeys I employed five months, and traversed 1500 miles, and now present to the public the result of my observations and researches.

‘In this work the reader must not expect to find a regular history of Monmouthshire, but a description of the principal places, intermixed with historical relations and biographical anecdotes, and embellished with the most striking views, for which I am principally indebted to my friend sir Richard Hoare, whose persevering zeal and activity claim my warmest gratitude.’ P. i.

Numerous other acknowledgments are subjoined; for great and important have been the aids which Mr. Coxe has received. The plates and drawings communicated are also numerous, and, in general, executed with elegance and fidelity. The ground-plots of ancient castles, the plans of old encampments, and the views, chiefly of churches and ruins, are scattered with profusion. A new and most accurate map of the county is prefixed. The latitude and longitude of Monmouth, it is said, differ materially from former delineations:—we wish the author had enabled us

to add, that they were calculated from careful and repeated observations. Mr. Arrowsmith's own authority is considerable; but of the authorities to which he himself has referred we could have wished to have been informed.

A general view of the history of Monmouthshire, and its situation in different periods, is prefixed; and to this succeeds an account of the Roman stations and roads in the district, with a description of the course of the Via Julia from Bath to the western confines of this county; illustrated with maps, and a general history of its ancient encampments, castles, and churches. These are subjects which admit but of little discussion. Some of the remarks on the Roman stations and the Julia Strata are highly ingenious and correct; but in one or two instances, were there room for such discussions, we could suggest some doubts.

Mr. Coxe crossed the Severn at the New Passage, and proceeded to St. Pierre. A picture, supposed to be a portrait of Mr. Thomas Lewis of St. Pierre, is, in our author's opinion, a representation of Charles Marten, who was confined for twenty years in Chepstow castle. On this account our tourist tells us that he has given an engraving of the head; but it is not in the list of portraits, and occurs only at the latter end of the second part. Mr. Coxe makes a short excursion to Mathern, once the episcopal residence of the bishops of Llandaff, to Moins-court, and to Runston; but he soon returns to the shore, and describes Sudbrook encampment, Chapel Portscwit, and Caldecot castle. If this be an account of a single tour, his course to Newport was very circuitous; for he wanders with little regularity in his way towards this town, visiting every antiquarian remain with great diligence and attention. We suspect, however, that the information collected in several different tours is here united; and, without following our author minutely, we shall only remark, that he describes Crick, Caerwent, Dinham, and, more directly in the road to Newport, the castles of Penhow, Pencoed, Lanvair, and Striguil, Bertholly house, the views from the Pencamawr and Kemeys' Folly. The former of these descriptions is an abstract of much of the picturesque part of the tour, and we shall consequently transcribe it.

‘Issuing from the deep gloom of this dreary and uninhabited district, I ascended to the summit of the eminence called the Pencamawr, a high point of the elevated ridge which stretches from the Treleg hills through the midland district of Monmouthshire, and terminates near Caerleon. On reaching the height, a glorious prospect suddenly burst upon my view. From the midst of the forest scenery I looked down on the rich vales of Monmouthshire, watered by the limpid and winding Usk, dotted with numerous towns and villages, and bounded to the west by the long chain of hills which stretch from Pont y Pool, and terminate in the mass of mountains above Abergavenny. In this

variegated landscape I caught the first glimpse of the Sugar Loaf and Skyrriid, which, from their height and contrast, form the principal features in the prospects of this delightful country.' P. 35.

Mr. Coxe proceeds to Christchurch, more directly in the road to Newport, making an excursion only to Lanwern and Goldcliff. The name of the latter is apparently derived from particles of iron pyrite united with mica, which, in the sun, appear of a bright yellow. Dikes or walls extend from Caldecot to Goldcliff, to restrain the encroaching sea from this level, which advances almost to Newport.

Newport is but an inconsiderable town, though of augmenting commerce, scarcely containing more than a thousand people. The description of St. Woolos church is very particular and entertaining. The Monmouthshire canal terminates at Newport.

' This canal consists of two branches, which unite in the plain of Malpas. The first, or Crumlin branch, commences in the vale of the Ebwy, just above Crumlin bridge, and is carried from north to south, along the rising eminences parallel to the Ebwy, by Abercarn and Risca, to a height called Cefn, where it runs south-east to Newport. The length of this branch is nearly eight miles; the perpendicular fall of water 365 feet; and it is provided with 32 locks. The highest ground is between Cefn and the junction of the two branches; within which space of a mile and a half there are 20 locks.

' The second, or Pont y Pool branch, begins at Pont Newynydd, near Pont y Pool, and is eleven miles in length. The perpendicular fall of water is 447 feet, and the number of locks 42; the average depth $3\frac{1}{2}$ feet; the burden of the barges from 25 to 28 tons*.

' The principal commodities conveyed to Newport by this canal are pit-coal, timber, and different sorts of iron, but principally pig-iron, from the numerous founderies in the western mountains. The articles from Newport are, various kinds of shop goods for the interior consumption, furniture, and deals. A more particular account of these exports and imports will be found in a list communicated by Mr. Morgan Parry, agent for the canal, which is inserted in the Appendix.

' A new canal from Brecknock now forming, which is intended to join the Monmouthshire canal near Pont y Pool, runs parallel to the right bank of the Usk, from Brecknock to Lanfoist, above Abergavenny, and from thence above Lanellen and Lanover, by Mamhilad to Pont y Moel. It is nearly finished as far as the Clyda Forge, on the frontier of Monmouthshire. But the enormous expence of carrying it through a mountainous district, in which the excavations must be made a great depth, renders it uncertain whether it will ever reach the place of its original destination.' P. 47.

From Newport, Mr. Coxe proceeds to the western confines of Monmouthshire, varying his direction to the south-west, nearly

* Since the opening of the canal, the coal-trade to Bridgewater has been very great, and Newport now rivals the more western ports in that market.

to the embouchure of the Romney, the boundary on this side, and to the north-west, with respect to Newport, so far as Bedwas. The latter course is more extensive to the west than the north; for, a little above Machen, the direction of the river turns the traveller, for some way, directly to the west. The following passage is interesting on many accounts:

'About a mile from Bassaleg, (a town a little to the west of Newport) and a quarter of a mile from the high road, is Craeg y Saesson, a circular encampment on the brow of a hill, thickly overgrown with trees and coppice, and commanding, through the openings of the wood, a beautiful perspective of the Bristol Channel. It is supposed, from the name of Craeg y Saesson, or the Saxon fortress, that this place was a Saxon encampment; but those who maintain this opinion are wholly unacquainted with the customs and language of the Welsh. For my intelligent companion informed me, that by long habit, derived from the inveteracy of their ancestors against the Saxons, the Welsh range all foreigners indiscriminately under the appellation of Saxons; a custom which has likewise misled many writers to affirm that the Saxon dominion was extended farther in these parts than is warranted by history. Between the encampment and the road, we passed through a pleasant meadow, called Maes Arthur, or the field of Arthur; which, according to uncertain tradition, derived its appellation from that renowned hero of British fable.

'About a mile farther, close to the high road on the left, is a similar encampment, on the level summit of an eminence called Pen y Park Newydd, or the head of the New Park, a circular entrenchment, with a single foss, and rampart of earth. Several large stones are scattered in and near the foss, which appear to have formed part of the walls: the entrance is south-west by south.

'This spot commands a superb view: on the east the high and woody ridge, crowned by the Pencamawr, stretches along the midland parts of Monmouthshire, and terminates in the bare tops of the Treleg hills; to the north-east is a lower chain of fertile eminences, backed by the Graeg and Garway, near the frontiers of Herefordshire. The view towards the north is distinguished by the great Skyrrid, towering like the point of a volcano; the long range of the Mynydd Maen, with Twyn Barlwm, rising like a vast excrescence on its southern extremity. Nearly north is Mynydd Machen, under which expands the beautiful vale of Machen, sprinkled with white cottages; to the north-west the castellated mansion and rich groves of Ruperra, connected with the chain of hills in Glamorganshire. The view to the south-west is closed by the low and narrow promontory of Pen Arth, and the mouth of the Taaf crowded with shipping. Southwards extend the levels of Caldecot and Wentloog, watered by the Usk, and bounded by the Bristol Channel, with the flat and steep holms, appearing like points in a vast expanse of water.' P. 59.

The description of Tredegar house, the seat of the Morgans, introduces the pedigree of that family, which we chiefly notice to remark that of genealogy we have occasionally too much in these volumes. It is less connected with a tour than with a

history. Wentloog level is on the Bristol Channel, somewhat farther down than Caldecot level, and defended from the encroachment of the sea by the same means. Peterston, Marshfield, and St. Bride's churches, all of them on this level, are particularly described.

• The eminence of Twyn Barlwm is a swelling height, about six miles in circumference at its base, rising on the south-western extremity of Mynydd Maen; and is covered with coarse russet herbage, moss, and heath, without a single tree, from which it derives its name. The summit is a flat surface of an oval shape, and on the highest part is crowned with a circular tumulus, or artificial mound of earth and stones, eighteen yards in height, and surrounded with a deep foss. The entrance is north-east, from which a trench, about three feet in depth, is carried round the brow of the eminence, and returns to the opposite side of the tumulus.

• Many different opinions have been formed concerning the origin and use of this work. Some called it a beacon, some a strong hold, and others a place of sepulture. I am inclined to believe that it was originally one of those places of sepulture called *carns*, which, in the early ages of the world, were in common use among all nations, and particularly among the Britons, who were accustomed to bury their most famous leaders on the highest eminences, either as a conspicuous memorial, or to strike terror into their enemies. In subsequent times it may have been employed as a beacon, or even as a temporary fastness, in case of a sudden invasion; though from its size and condition, it could not be used as a permanent place of defence. It might contain the ashes of some valiant chief among the Silures, who fell in defending his country against the Romans. The name of Cwm Carn, or the valley of the Carn, which is given to a neighbouring dingle, in the sides of the Mynydd Maen, may have been derived from this tumulus. But whatever was its primary destination, I am informed by Mr. Owen, that, according to a tradition in the neighbourhood, and particularly among the present race of bards, it was once a celebrated place for holding the Eisteddfod, or bardic meetings.

• Twyn Barlwm, being situated on the highest point of the chain which bounds the rich valleys watered by the Usk, commands one of the most singular and glorious prospects which I had yet enjoyed in Monmouthshire; and which cannot be reduced to a specific and adequate description. To the south, the levels of Caldecot and Wentloog, with the broad Severn, losing itself in an expanse of sea, seemed to stretch at the bottom of its sloping declivity; the town of Newport, and the tower of Christchurch, rising in the midst of hills and forests. To the east appear the cultivated parts of Monmouthshire, swelling into numerous undulations, fertilised by the mæandering Usk. These rich prospects are contrasted on the north and west with a waving surface of mountains, that stretch beyond the confines of Glamorgan-shire and Brecknockshire. This dreary expanse is nothing but a succession of russet eminences, almost without the appearance of a single habitation, excepting the district of Cross Penmaen, which is profusely studded with white houses on the summit, and along the sloping

declivities. The beautiful valleys of the Ebwy and Sorwy appear in the hollows between the mountains, deeply shaded with trees, and watered by torrents, which faintly glimmer through the intervening foliage.' P. 75.

Mr. Coxe's next object is Caerleon, a spot peculiarly interesting, as it is the scene of the exploits of the fabulous Arthur,—we mean that thus far his actions deserve such a title. Caerleon was, however, certainly a Roman station; and the supposed round table, most probably, the remains of a Roman amphitheatre. The real appellation of Caerleon, according to Mr. Owen, is *Caer Llion*, the city of the waters—'an etymology not inapplicable to its situation on a tide river, which rises very high, and near the Avon Lwyd, a torrent inundating the country.' Perhaps the propriety of the appellation is more strongly evinced by the following circumstance.

'There is a striking peculiarity in the situation of the ancient Roman fortress, which has hitherto escaped the notice of travelers, and would have escaped mine, had not Mr. Evans pointed it out to me. Caerleon appears, on a superficial view, to occupy a flat position; but, in fact, that portion of the present town which is inclosed by the Roman walls is placed on a gentle rise, connected at one extremity with the lower part of the eminence on which the encampment of the lodge is situated. This rise shelves on the west and south sides towards the Usk, and on the east towards the Avon Lwyd, and seems to have formed a tongue of land, which, before the draining of the meadows, was probably a kind of peninsula. Hence the fortress, from its position on a rise between two rivers, and almost surrounded with marshy ground, was a place of considerable strength, and well calculated to become the primary station of the Romans in *Britannia Secunda*.' P. 83.

The draining of the meadows here hinted at supports the opinion that the broad way *really* led to the ancient quay. The absurdity of the reports respecting the rings is not so great as Mr. Coxe supposes, who thinks that no iron can resist the corrosion of marine salt for ten years. We know not where his observations upon this subject have been made; but we can show him iron covered by the tide twice a-day for three times this period, without any marks of even commencing corrosion. The whole, however, of the description of Caerleon is peculiarly interesting, nor can any part be with propriety separated. The story of the round table is, of course, doubted; at least what is styled the table is a very different piece of workmanship from that celebrated by tradition.

The next excursion is to Usk, the ancient *Burrium*, through St. Julian's, but taking into the description the objects both on the upper and lower road, viz. Lantarnam house, Langibby house, Kemeys house, and Tredonnoc church. We find,

however, nothing that will particularly detain us in this part of the route.

Usk is a town of considerable antiquity; but no remains have been discovered in its neighbourhood: it scarcely contains seven hundred inhabitants, and has only one manufactory of Japan ware. In the neighbourhood are three ancient encampments.

Raglan castle, an object of no little importance in the tour through Monmouthshire, lies on the north, at no great distance from Usk. Including the out-works, it must have been formerly very extensive; it is in itself strong, and highly ornamented, for the rude æra in which it forms so striking an object. The particular description we need not abridge, but may add, that the history introduces an account and portraits of Sir Charles Somerset, first earl of Worcester, Henry Somerset, first marquis of Worcester, and Edward, second marquis of Worcester, the famous earl of Glamorgan. It was the son of the earl who gave the hints of so many singular machines; and who was certainly acquainted not only with the principles, but, in a great degree, with the mechanism of the noblest of human inventions, the steam engine.

In the centre of Monmouthshire on the west, to the north and south of Raglan, are Lansanfraed house, Pant y Goytre, Clytha house, Lanarth court, Kemeys Commander, Trostrey house, and the village of Bettus Newydd. These residences our author describes in succession; but we find nothing that we can select with advantage. The method of catching salmon at the weir of Trostrey Forge is curious, but not uncommon.

Mr. Coxe now advances to the north of the county, to Abergavenny and its adjoining Alps, a country equally beautiful and sublime. The Bloreng, the Sugar Loaf, and the Skyrrid, are mountains of a height not indeed stupendous compared with Mont Blanc and the higher regions of Switzerland, but which may be considered, in this country, of an extraordinary elevation.

Abergavenny stretches at the feet of hills and mountains, which, gradually swelling from the vale, unite the extremes of wildness and fertility, and are interesting from the contrast of their shape and appearance.

To the west rises the Bloreng, magnificent from its height and continuity; it forms the northern extremity of the chain, which reaches from Pont y Pool, and terminates near the confines of the county. The highest part towers above the Usk and the town of Abergavenny; its sides are concave; the summit is covered with russet herbage, without a single bush; the midland parts are chequered with underwood, intermixed with fertile meadows, and the base is clothed with timber trees. At the northern extremity, the rich

knoll of Upper Lanfoist presents a wood of fine oak, ash, and elm, forming an extensive mantle of thick and dark foliage.

' To the north are the Pen y Vale hills, which sweep from the extremity of the town, and rise into four undulating eminences: they appear at a little distance to be separate, but are connected together, and intersected by narrow glens, which are watered by lively and murmuring streams, that rise on their sides, and swell the Usk, with their tributary waters. These four eminences are known by distinct appellations. The Derry, the most easterly, is of a convex shape, and derives its name from a grove of small oaks, which clothes its sides and summit; the next is the Rolben; the third is the Graig Lanwenarth, and the fourth the hill Lanwenarth; both so called from their situation in the parish, and above the church of Lanwenarth.

' These four hills support, on their broad and extensive base, the Pen y Vale, called the Sugar Loaf, from its shape. The undulating outline of this elegant summit is embossed in the middle with the cone, which assumes different appearances:

" Mille habet ornatus, mille decenter habet."

' It looks like a piked ridge from the opposite side of the Usk; sometimes appears in a globular shape; but at a distance, and particularly at the south-eastern side of the Skyrrid, assumes the form of a pyramid, and resembles the crater of a volcano. This cone is the highest object in the vicinity, has nothing rugged or craggy, and is characterised by smoothness and beauty.

' The most singular and interesting mountain in the neighbourhood is the Great Skyrrid, or St. Michael's Mount, which stretches from north to south, or, more accurately, from north-east to south-west: it is an insulated mount, rising abruptly from the plain; the north-eastern side appears a steep ridge of a brown hue; towards the south and south-east it slopes gradually into cultivation. The summit is covered with heath, or russet herbage, and its feet are clothed with wood, or enriched with corn and pasture.

' In one point of view, particularly from the Little Skyrrid, it assumes the appearance of an enormous barrow, or tumulus, piled up by the hands of giants. To the north it terminates in a bold and craggy precipice, divided into two points, quaintly, but not inaccurately, called by Stukeley "bipartite at top, and Parnassus like:" this double summit is occasioned by a fissure or rent, from which the name of Skyrrid is supposed to be derived. At a small distance from Lanvihangel, on the Herefordshire road, this precipitous rock seems like two detached mountains, of a conical shape; and, as I observed some clouds resting on the highest summit, its stupendous crag appeared like the rugged crater of a volcano, vomiting volumes of smoke.

' The Little Skyrrid is a beautiful swelling hill, covered on its sides and summit with plantations. Its elegant form and fertile appearance are finely contrasted with the rugged and broken ridge of the Great Skyrrid.

' The respective heights of these mountains, above the mouth of the Gavenny, were taken barometrically by general Roy:

	FEET.
' The summit of the Sugar Loaf - - -	1852.
of the Skyrrid - - -	1498.
of the Little Skyrrid - - -	765.
of the Blorengce - - -	1720. P. 164.

The town, for a time, appeared to decay. It was once the *dépôt* of goods from London and Bristol, and supplied the more inland parts of Wales; but the riders now send their commodities to every place through which they travel; and its manufacture of flannel, and even the fashion of its goats' whey, have declined. The iron-founderies in its neighbourhood promise, however, to supply the loss. The castle and its proprietors are noticed at some length. Among the latter, the mention of Sir Richard Herbert, of Coldbrook, reminds us of an omission in the former part of this article, viz. of the memoirs of lord Herbert of Cherbury, in the twelfth chapter, when speaking of St. Julian's. They are chiefly extracted from those written by himself, and sufficiently known as the effusions of vanity and egotism, with some interesting and entertaining discussions, and some valuable information respecting the affairs of that period, in which he was a principal actor.

The twentieth chapter contains excursions to the summits of the Sugar Loaf and the Great Skyrrid.

' The sides of the mountain are covered with heath, whortle-berries, and moss, to the height of a foot, which renders the ascent so extremely easy, that a light carriage might be driven to the base of the cone, not more than one hundred paces from the summit. I dismounted near a rock, which emerges from the side of the ridge, forming a natural wall, and reached the top without the smallest difficulty. This elevated point, which crowns the summit of four hills, is an insulated ridge, about a quarter of a mile in length, and two hundred yards in breadth, with broken crags starting up amid the moss and heath with which it is covered.

' The view from this point is magnificent, extensive and diversified. It commands the counties of Radnor, Salop, Brecknock, Monmouth, Glamorgan, Hereford, Worcester, Gloucester, Somerset, and Wilts. To the west extends the long and beautiful Vale of the Usk, winding in the recesses of the mountains, and expanding to the south into the fertile plain, which is terminated by the Clytha hills. Above it towers the magnificent Blorengce, almost equal in height to the point on which I stood; and in the midst rises the undulating swell of the Little Skyrrid, appearing like a gentle eminence feathered with wood. To the north, a bleak, dreary, sublime mass of mountains, stretches in a circular range from the extremity of the Black mountains above Lanthony to the Table Rock near Crickhowel; the commencement of the great chain which extends from these confines of Monmouthshire, across North Wales, to the Irish Sea. To the east I looked down on the broken crags of the Great Skyrrid, which

starts up in the midst of a rich and cultivated region. Beyond, the Malvern hills, the Graig, the Garway, and the eminences above Monmouth, bound the horizon. Above, and on the side of Brecknockshire, all was clear and bright; but below, and to the south, there was much vapour and mist, which obscured the prospect, and prevented my seeing the distant Severn, and the hills in Somersetshire and Gloucestershire.

‘ This elevated point rises 1852 feet perpendicular from the mouth of the Gavenny, and is seen from Bitcomb Hill, near Longleat, in the county of Wilts, and from the Stiper Stones in the county of Salop, near the borders of Montgomeryshire.

‘ During my continuance on the summit, I felt that extreme satisfaction which I always experience when elevated on the highest point of the circumjacent country. The air is more pure, the body more active, and the mind more serene; lifted up above the dwellings of man, we discard all groveling and earthly passions; the thoughts assume a character of sublimity, proportionate to the grandeur of the surrounding objects; and, as the body approaches nearer to the ethereal regions, the soul imbibes a portion of their unalterable purity.’
P. 195.

The last chapter of the First Part contains a description of Twy Dee, the seat of Mr. Dinwoody; and of Werndee, the cradle of the Herbert family, of the last of which we shall select one anecdote.

‘ The house, which has been lately repaired for the use of the tenant, was in such a state of dilapidation, that the father of the last proprietor, Mr. Proger, was in danger of perishing under the ruins of the ancient mansion, which he venerated even in decay. As we examined the house, Mr. Dinwoody related an anecdote of this Mr. Proger, which exhibits his pride of ancestry in a striking point of view. A stranger, whom he accidentally met at the foot of the Skyrrid, made various inquiries respecting the country, the prospects, and the neighbouring houses, and, among others, asked “ Whose is this antique mansion before us?” “ That sir, is Werndee, a very ancient house; for out of it came the earls of Pembroke of the first line, and the earls of Pembroke of the second line; the lords Herbert of Cherbury, the Herberts of Coldbrook, Rumney, Caerdiff, and York; the Morgans of Acton; the earl of Hunsdon; the Jones’s of Treowen and Lanarth, and all the Powells. Out of this house also, by the female line, came the dukes of Beaufort.” — “ And pray, sir, who lives there now?” “ I do, sir.” “ Then pardon me, and accept a piece of advice: Come out of it yourself, or ’twill tumble and crush you.” P. 205.

This chapter is concluded by a short account of a visit to the Pen y pale hills and the Little Skyrrid; but it offers nothing which will entertain the reader, after the descriptions we have already selected.

To pursue the Second Part of this work will, we perceive, make our article too extensive: We shall therefore resume it in another number of our journal.

ART. II.—*Annals of Philosophy, Natural History, Chemistry, Literature, Agriculture, and the Mechanical and Fine Arts, for the Year 1800.* By T. Garnett, M.D.F.L.S. &c. and other Gentlemen. Vol. I. 8vo. 10s. 6d. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1801.

WHILE philosophy and chemistry extend their bounds with hasty steps, it will be of consequence to trace annually their progress; and, as we have Annals of Medicine, though it were to be wished that these really recorded the progressive improvements in the medical science, there can be no objection to Annals of Philosophy. As this is a new attempt, it will be necessary to examine, with particular care, the plan and the execution. With respect to the former, Dr. Garnett must speak for himself; for he must not be tried on statutes with whose tendency he is unacquainted.

‘That a work which would give a general and concise view of the scientific discoveries of the year, with references to the original works in which such discoveries were published, would, if properly executed, be highly useful, it is presumed will be generally allowed. As it is in the power of very few, on account of indispensable occupations, to read every publication on the sciences and arts that comes from the press, it is certainly desirable to have a work, which, in the compass of a volume, will give a detail of all that has been done, and which, placed in a library, will serve as an index, pointing out the sources from whence satisfactory information on each subject may be obtained. A volume like the present comes within the reach of almost every one, both in respect to expence and time; and if he should require fuller information on any subject, he will be directed immediately to it, without wandering in uncertainty without a guide in his researches. It is evident, that in a work whose object is so extensive, more than a concise abstract of each particular could not be given, without increasing its size to such a degree as would have defeated the intention with which it is published. Of those subjects, however, which appeared the most important, the fullest accounts have been given, while others of less note have been more concisely noticed, except indeed where, from the nature of the publication, it was impossible to give a concise abstract, without injury to the original; in such cases it has been deemed sufficient to give the contents, and a reference.’ P. i.

This, however, forms but a small part of the work; and, before we offer any remarks on it, we shall pursue our account of the general plan. To natural philosophy, natural history succeeds in its full extent, including mineralogy, which is followed by chemistry; and the whole of this division is concluded by a supplement.

The second part is styled ‘literary;’ and the various publications of the year are arranged under the titles of Agriculture,

Antiquities and Antiquarian Researches, Arts, Biography, Chemistry, Dictionaries, Grammars and Books of Education, Dramatic, Ethics, Metaphysics, History, Law, Mathematics, Medicine and Surgery, Miscellaneous, Natural History, Novels and Romances, Philosophy, Philology, Poetry, Politics (English and Irish), Topography, Travels and Voyages. The literature of France, Germany, Spain, Italy, &c. is afterwards discriminated under their appropriate titles.

The third part is styled 'miscellaneous,' and contains an account of the improvements in agriculture, in the arts, and fine arts, and an obituary confined to literary men.

Such is the disposition of the work before us; and it will be at once obvious that the title chiefly relates to the first part. The arrangement we shall not animadvert on, as some change seems to be in contemplation. In a future volume the chemistry is to follow the natural philosophy, and the miscellaneous information, respecting improvements, to follow the Annals of Philosophy. In a work of this kind such minute arrangement is probably rather more curious than useful; and we own, in the present state of chemical science, its connexion with mineralogy appears more intimate than with natural philosophy, though of the latter it is strictly a part. The other change has a more solid foundation, if the book were ever read *a capite ad calcem*.

As we have transcribed the objects of the authors of the analysis, we need not greatly enlarge on this part of the work. Two improvements have, however, occurred to us, which we shall mention for their consideration. The first is to give the fullest view, not of subjects of the greatest importance, but of those which are with greater difficulty pursued, from the works which treat of them not being within the reader's reach. The Philosophical Transactions, for instance, are easily procured; the Memoirs of the National Institute with difficulty. Mr. Nicholson's Journal, and the Magazin Encyclopedique, periodical works of peculiar excellence, are in the same predicament. The second improvement we would suggest is the connecting the subjects more closely; at present they are often broken into sentences. The *perpetuum carmen* of Mr. Robinson's 'Domestic Literature,' in the New Annual Register, and of the department formerly styled 'Foreign Literary Intelligence,' in this journal, rendered each, from the connexion of the subjects, particularly valuable. The supplement breaks the subjects still farther: and we would rather recommend a little delay in the publication, if the public patience were not, as is sometimes the case, too much trespassed upon, which might enable the author to comprise the whole of the Annals of Philosophy in one article. If each department were paged separately, this would be still more easy. A very useful part of the supplement is a comparative view of the French and English calendars, and the French and English weights and measures.

Of the second part, styled 'literary,' and of the object of the authors, for Dr. Garnett has associates; we shall add their own account.

'A complete account of literature published in England, and brought into one point of view, has not hitherto appeared; nor has, we believe, been attempted; the retrospect in the New Annual Register being confined to short notices of works, which have acquired some degree of eminence; and the reviews, although few works in the end escape their researches, from the mode and periods of their publication, are unable to afford such a connected view.

'We therefore disclaim any idea of interfering with either of those publications: our account will be much more extended than the nature of the Annual Register will allow; and we shall avoid trespassing on the province of the reviewers, as we shall not introduce criticism, except in certain cases, where to withhold it would be doing an injury to the author, or where our noticing a work of bad tendency might, without a proper caution, induce our readers to purchase it.

'As we mean the following account for use as well as amusement, we shall generally insert the titles of English works at full length, together with the size, price, and publisher's name. In many cases our readers will agree with us that this is fully sufficient; but where the work has merit we shall give a short account of its contents only. The limits of our work will, we fear, at the utmost, permit us to give little more than a catalogue *raisonnée*. Of foreign books we shall give such parts of the title only as we think necessary.' p. 227.

If the apology made to the editors of the Annual Registers and the Reviews have any meaning, it is that the former do not notice every work, and the latter do not notice them in time. If any consequence can be strictly drawn from this concession, it is that, together, they supersede the present attempt. The fact, however, is, that the reviews, if allowance be made for accidental interruptions, generally notice the greater number of important works within the year, and very certainly by much the greater number of the less important. Of the review of the more valuable works, it may be asked, Whether advantages be not derived from the delay, more than equivalent to any injuries sustained? In pursuing the inquiries which important works suggest, who can estimate the time and labour which a correct and critical account of it may demand? or how extensive those inquiries may be which enable the reviewer to add that the author's statement is insufficient or erroneous, complete or satisfactory? On this subject we would preclude every sneer; for we *know* that these terms are neither rashly nor inconsiderately used. Days have been employed before a single sentence has been finished satisfactorily; pages have been written which maturer investigation has cancelled. Of the trifling works, in each journal, the object and execution are noticed; nor is there so meagre a muster-roll of names, in the

'meanest of the Muses' train,' as in this volume of the Annals. We will say more. In many articles, the author's object, even when expressed in the work, is mistaken or misrepresented in the catalogue before us; and the account in the 'literary' part is in more than one instance inconsistent with that in the philosophical. In some others, the articles in each part, we mean to include the obituary, must be brought together to furnish the full intelligence;—we particularly allude to Montucla, and his History of the Mathematics, of which no trace is to be found in the index. We can easily see why so little of the titles of foreign works is given in the foreign department; but the authors might have been easily supplied with a fuller account, and the titles at length.

On the whole, we think this part totally unnecessary, and, as it is executed, of still less importance than it might have been made. If the editors of the Annals give the titles at greater length than those of the New Annual Register, or more early than the reviews, they are greatly deficient in their accounts of the various authors' objects, and the merits of the different works; and it must be acknowledged, that if from neglect there be, in the usual publications, a chasm in the history of the annual progress of science, it is not filled up in the publication before us. We mean not to say that there is *not* a chasm: the mind is not always equally ready for exertion; the prepollent merit of contending claims cannot always be balanced with strict propriety; and who can suppose that the hand to which, in order to preserve consistency, kindred subjects must be entrusted, may not sometimes be unnerved by mental distress or disabled by bodily illness? So much it has been necessary to allege in our own defence, in defence of unavoidable delays, and as an apology to authors whom we highly respect—indeed too much to hasten with listless apathy, or careless indifference, over works of real merit.

The 'miscellaneous' part relates to the arts; and those chiefly attended to are the agricultural, and what may be more loosely styled the oeconomic. The specifications of patents would form, we think, a valuable addition to this portion of the work. We know that these are slight, and sometimes delusive; but even hints are often of considerable importance. Of the fine arts, the chief attention is paid to painting: music and sculpture are passed over with apparent indifference. Of the obituary we need say little;—it is executed with a kind of caution that excites neither censure nor praise.

In short, we think there is ample room for a collection of this kind; and no one can see the necessity of such an attempt more strikingly than ourselves. In an extensive literary journal much must be passed over hastily that might require the minuteness of detail; the abstruser and drier parts of science must be

slightly touched in a work that 'must please to live;' and the reviewer will sometimes 'omit what he despairs of adorning.' The scientific analyst, while he labours on the same materials with the journalist, is not impeded by the same difficulties: he has models in the *miscellanea curiosa*, and in the various abridgements of memoirs, to guide him, and he may fill up the picture, of which the reviewer can only sketch the outlines, while he leads to those who may give fuller information; in short, he is on a different footing with the Annual Register. As we some time since observed, the latter acts the part of the convex mirror; it contracts the view of the passing events, while the daily and monthly registers give them, if not with more distinctness, in a more expanded form. The Annals of Philosophy should convert the office, and enlarge on the minuter points, less adapted to a general journal, and include accounts which scarcely come within the province of the former. We often insert miscellaneous information in the review of works which we could not otherwise distinctly notice.

Of the various contents which are, or ought to be, remarked upon in our journal, we need give no account. There are two papers, however, which are more properly within our reach, and of which we shall give a short view. The first is an original memoir, entitled 'an account of the discovery, progress, and present state of Galvanism.' This account is clear, concise, and scientific; but it will afford us little subject for observation. We noticed this peculiar science very early, and have had it constantly before us, though we were unable to give it that fixed connected view which is perpetually aimed at in our journal, as the science chiefly consisted of detached facts, and these not published in any work which we could advert to consistently with our plan. At present we remark that the Galvanic power is electrical; but it is that of electricity extended over a large surface, not that more active principle which gives violent or fatal shocks: it is produced, too, almost insensibly, and continued without an apparent supply. When zinc and silver are at the extremities of the pile, the water between the plates is undoubtedly decomposed; but the singular circumstance is, that the oxygen appears only at the zinc wire: it seems to pass invisibly when conjoined with the Galvanic fluid, and is separated only when it meets with a metal capable of attracting it with superior power. This appearance has not been properly explained, and we shall only connect it with another fact, that the electricity excited by water, evaporating from heated silver, is always negative. It is contended, with great reason, by a late author, (*Exeter Essays*, p. 374) that, in these instances, water is decomposed. It is clear that, in every instance of Galvanic excitement, the silver wire has the electricity *minus*.

Water seems to act only as an oxyd, and substances containing oxygen in larger proportion, as acids, appear to be far more powerful. This part of the subject, however, requires farther elucidation: we shall, of course, attend to it in its progress.

The other part of the contents of these Annals, which we shall notice, is an abstract from the fourth volume of Mr. Nicholson's Journal, containing some experiments on light and heat, in opposition to those of Dr. Herschel. We shall select Dr. Garnett's account at length.

'In the 45th and 46th numbers of Mr. Nicholson's Journal of Natural Philosophy, Chemistry, and the Arts, are inserted several remarks on the inquiries of Dr. Herschel respecting light and heat, by Mr. John Leslie. With a photometer of his invention, he made a number of experiments. When the instrument was placed beyond the spectrum, though it approached the margin, whether above or below, or at the sides, no effect whatever was perceived; and as, according to Mr. Leslie this instrument greatly surpasses, in sensibility and regularity of performance, the finest thermometer, it is only, he observes, what might have been expected, that he could perceive no alteration when he employed thermometers of uncommon delicacy and of various constructions, with black or pellucid bulbs, having their scales subdivided into tenths of a degree, and capable of indicating still smaller differences. There is a circumstance, however, which, being overlooked, might (Mr. Leslie observes) lead to egregious errors. If the spectrum be received on a stand, the instrument brought near it will be sensibly affected; owing partly to the light reflected, but chiefly to the action of the heated air accumulated over the illuminated surface. In short, the operations are deranged in every case where the instrument is not completely insulated, and is remote from all solid materials which might retain the light: and it is worthy of remark that the afflux of light must raise the temperature of a flat surface of imperfect conducting substance, such as wood or pasteboard, more than four times as much as it will the blackened ball of a thermometer; for, in the former case, the heating and cooling causes are exerted on the same spot; but in the latter the quantity of light or heat received is only as the central section of the ball, while the whole surface, which is quadruple that space, is exposed to the cooling influence of the ambient air. There are other circumstances too, he says, which tend to augment that difference of effect: on the whole, it is most difficult, where an active source of heat exists, to obtain an uniform temperature, particularly in a small room. These hints, he observes, will serve as a clue for detecting Dr. Herschel's mistakes. The first circumstance that begets suspicion is the large quantities marked by his thermometers, and which are not much inferior to the full force of the sun-beam.

'Upon the whole, Mr. Leslie imputes the principal errors to which he says Dr. Herschel's experiments are liable, to the platform on which the thermometers were laid, which, receiving light, though partially, would acquire heat in a quadruple ratio, and communicate this to the contiguous stratum of air.

‘ Mr. Leslie farther observes, that if, after what he has brought forward, any doubt should remain, there is a single fact, which at once demolishes the whole fabric. If those invisible calorific rays had any real existence, the action of a burning lens would be most powerful, not at the proper focus, but a considerable way beyond it. For the same reason the hole burnt in a black piece of cloth would not be confined to the lucid focus, but would include a ring, swelling all around, to double that diameter. Dr. Herschel, indeed, asserts, that a burning glass does act most powerfully at some distance behind the bright focus. In short, we have fact opposed to fact, and experiment to experiment; and till the matter has undergone farther investigation, we shall not attempt to pronounce any decided opinion upon the question.’ P. 34.

On this subject we might make some remarks; though, if the view we have taken of it in our account of Dr. Herschel’s paper be correct, no great difference will remain. If the spectrum be attenuated light—and it must be so, because it is expanded in a much larger space than the original ray—we may easily imagine that there is a part where it is less attenuated; and this part will be at the extremity, where the coloured light is most intense, and a little on this side of the colour. Mr. Leslie must at once see that his concluding remarks are of less importance; for, in the focus of a lens, the coloured and uncoloured rays are united, and objects exposed to it experience the conjoint force of the whole. We see not, however, that his former distinction is of much real importance. If the heat *be* from the stand, why should it be greater near the red rays than when immersed in them, unless there *were* rays which impart more intense heat than the coloured and contiguous ones, for the stand was as much exposed to the one as to the other? We perceive, however, in the subject, much ambiguity, and would recommend some farther experiments.

ART. III.—*Letters and Papers on Agriculture, Planting, &c. Selected from the Correspondence of the Bath and West of England Society, for the Encouragement of Agriculture, Arts, Manufactures, and Commerce. Vol. IX. 8vo. 6s. 6d. Boards. Dilly.*

THE secretary’s introduction to the present volume has occurred to us in a separate form, and we have already offered those observations which it suggested. The subject is the ‘various topics of experiment and observation which have engaged the attention of the society since the publication of the last volume.’

The first article is Mr. Campbell’s ‘Series of Experiments on the Culture of Potatoes, with Remarks on the same, and the

general Culture of this valuable Root.' These are interesting and important: the value of potatoes has been lately felt, and is particularly experienced at this time. Whatever, therefore, adds to our knowledge of the means of increasing their produce will always command attention.

Mr. Exter and Mr. Close, in the two next articles, strongly inculcate the advantages of the drill husbandry, compared with the broad-cast; but, as we have already remarked, this subject seems to be decided. The latter gentleman explains the benefit he derives from planting the mazagan bean rather than the tick. It is indeed less productive, but commands a higher price. The principal advantage is, however, derived from its early maturity, which gives more time to prepare the land for wheat. Another is, that the plantation of this bean is subservient to a crop of cabbages. In July a furrow is taken from each ridge, and the young cabbages are planted in the shady avenue formed by the beans. Thus, when the beans are off, the whole land is thrown over to the cabbages.

Mr. Hobhouse's letter on the method of rendering inclosure bills more easy and less expensive, contains some judicious remarks; but the subject has engaged the attention of the house of commons; though, if we remember accurately, the plan adopted in the house is somewhat inferior, in respect of convenience and facility, to the present proposal.—Mr. Price's 'Further Reflexions on Commutations for Tythes' relate to the modes of compensation suggested by Mr. Davis in his Essay, which was honoured with the prize, in addition to those propounded by this author in *his* essay published in 1786. Perhaps the present writer's method, as more simple, is preferable, and sufficiently exact.

Mr. Harvey Pierce recommends the culture of furze for winter food for horses. The green tops are cut and bruised. These seem to be a wholesome diet; and additional testimonies of their salubrity and utility are subjoined.

'The Turnip Cabbage,' of which Mr. Broughton gives an 'Account, with Directions for its Cultivation,' differs from the turnip-rooted cabbage, which bears its bulb under the surface, while the turnip cabbage produces a bulb above. This latter bulb is in fact an enlargement of the stalk, surrounded with leaves nearly resembling broccoli. We cannot agree with Mr. Whittle in recommending the cultivation of potatoes from the rind. When the experiment has been tried without prejudice, it has not succeeded; nor does there appear to be more vegetable nutriment in the whole potatoe than is requisite for the future plant, from each eye.

Mr. Jennings presents an 'Account of a Series of Experiments respecting the Smut in Wheat.' The disorder, in his opinion, is communicated by infection, and may be prevented by

steeping the seed in water, with about $\frac{1}{10}$ part, by measure, of oil of vitriol, though a much larger proportion of the acid may be employed. The seed should not be suffered to dry when taken out of the steep, but may remain in it some time without danger. Some miscellaneous remarks by Mr. Feltham, author of a Tour through the Isle of Man, and a description of a draining plough, which follow, admit not of remark nor abridgement.

Mr. Collins's 'Farther Practical Remarks on the Nature of Sheep and Wool, the Disorders of Sheep, &c.' are the result of much judgement and study, and consequently very valuable. The following observations deserve attention.

'In the first choice of the ram or ewe, never go farther from your own farm, for any ram or ewe, than you can help; if yours be down land, buy from off the down; if inclosed, from the inclosed; remember to buy from worse land, if possible, than your own, because there is a greater probability they will thrive in your keeping; but take care not to keep them too well, as that may be attended with great inconveniences, if not with loss; for a sheep should work hard for its maintenance whilst in the flock, yet not be pinched; for then the same or worse inconveniences, or loss, may follow. Choose the handsomest sheep possible, but never neglect the coat or fleece; if that be bad in either of the above-mentioned instances, the sheep, whether ram or ewe, ought to be rejected, to all intents and purposes, however handsome the shape may be. Search the coat of the ram narrowly, to avoid a stitched-haired fleece, for this would so damage your wool in two years, that it could not be recovered again, without changing your flock, in 12 or 14 years. Again, however handsome the shape, however fine the wool, reject him if he has not a close thick coat (in which is plenty of yoke, a certain sign of health) along the back. The same care should be used in choosing the ram, whether for combing or clothing wool. Buy your ram a little before shearing-time, if you can; not at any fair or market, but at the farmer's house; for then you will see the ram as he is, without being shorn or trimmed by the sheep-barber purposely for sale; then you will also know the depth, or length, of the staple; the shorter, finer, and thicker it is, the better for clothing-wool; the longer, thicker, and finer, the better for combing-wool. As to the age of the ram, when to be bought, I am not competent to decide. Some I have known to buy lambs at the cutting season; others, two-teeth; others, four-teeth.

'As to the ewes, they are rather to be raised out of your own flock, than bought in from elsewhere; as they will be more naturalized to the soil, and other circumstances peculiar to the farm.' P. 114.

The rot is, in Mr. Collins's opinion, analagous to consumption; but this we think by no means true, as it is not inconsistent with obesity. The stone occurred, in one instance, within our author's circle of information. In the case of in-

sects, or cutaneous diseases of sheep, he thinks oil of turpentine more likely to be useful than tobacco.

‘ In Sussex, on the South-Downs, those farmers who have been desirous to amend their wool, have made it a constant practice to enquire of the wool-staplers, on what farm the best wool was found? And thus concluding the best rams are produced; supposing, as they buy many parcels of wool; and see more, they are the best judges, relying on them for such recommendation; and, therefore, it behoves the farmer, whose flock is thus distinguished, to endeavour, to the best of his ability, to support the credit of his flock, his own honour, and that nothing but truth should appear in the disposal of his rams to other farmers. It was thus Mr. Robert Palmer, of Chinting-Farm, near Seaford, Sussex, supported his credit and fame for a long series of years.

‘ The proverbs, local observations, speeches, comparisons with ancient laws, to be collected; and at the same time, the people’s own interpretation or application of them.

‘ Hint: might not a yearling or two go with the flock when they are fed with hay, to eat the leavings? Their dung would be more valuable than those leavings towards the manuring of the land.’

P. 127.

Mr. Furber, in the next article, describes a long earth-worm, which preys on the roots of wheat plants: And Mr. H. Sole communicates ‘ an Account of the principal English Grasses, with Descriptions of their respective Excellences and Defects, in regard to Agricultural Uses.’ This last article is very extensive and peculiarly valuable. We cannot abridge it; but shall transcribe the account of the *poa pralonga*, the long grass of Maddington, on Salisbury Plain.

‘ This most excellent grass, whose fame is spread all over England, needs no eulogium here. But as it is differently described by different authors, who all name different grasses, I shall give my opinion of it.

‘ Farmer John Hooper, who now occupies the ground, accompanied me to the field, and gathered those specimens here inserted, which are nothing more or less than *trivialis*; and I am convinced, it is the ground itself, and not the kind of grass, which constitutes the vast product talked of. The soil itself resembles, as deep as I could penetrate with a long knife, (viz. eight inches) an old mushroom bed, and the noted grass, so much talked of, consists of four sorts; and is not a peculiar grass, as generally supposed.

‘ The four predominant grasses, above alluded to, are as follow:— First, of this, which is the principal; and 2dly, of *flote-fescue* 3dly, *common couch*, whose root thrives prodigiously in this loose rich soil, and which, perhaps, in the cause of its fattening hogs, which no other field has the property of doing; and 4thly, of *agrostis palustris*.—These four different grasses blow in four different months, which I take to be the reason of every author describing a different grass, for he who goes in May finds this *poa* in bloom; he in June, *flote-fescue*; he in July, *couch-grass*; he who goes at Michaelmas finds *agrostis palustris*,

' This ground being overrun by streams of water from the street, farm-yards, &c. upon every downfall of rain, it is rendered so prolific as to bear four crops a year; and by the course of the water the grass is kept *couchant*, and in that spongy soil strikes at the joints, so that it will creep a vast length some wet years. This last May (1789) being very dry, it did not begin to creep before my visit; these being the best specimens Mr. Hooper and I could find; but eight years ago I procured specimens, six and eight feet in length, of *Poa trivialis*.' P. 154.

The scheme at the end, giving a short view of the different qualities of these grasses, and the two plates with which the paper is illustrated, are valuable additions.

The sixteenth article is 'on the Nature of the Disease occasioned by the Bite of a Mad Dog; to which is prefixed a Letter from Count Leopold de Berchtold to the Author, Dr. A. Fothergill.' The olive oil, it is asserted, has often cured the hydrophobia. The dose is said to be the quantity that can be contained in half an egg shell, and it is given beat up with the yolk of an egg. 'Mr. Meynell's Observations on the distinguishing Signs of Madness in Dogs' we shall transcribe.

' Mr. Meynell, a celebrated fox-hunter in Leicestershire, having paid particular attention to this distemper among his dogs, communicated to a physician the following remarks, in answer to some questions proposed to him on that subject. In order to prevent any mistake in a matter of such importance, I shall here present the reader with the result of his observations, copied *verbatim*, in his own words;

" The first symptom of canine madness in dogs is, I believe, a failure of appetite in a small degree. I mean, that the dog does not eat his usual food with his usual eagerness; though, if better food be offered him, he may eat it greedily. A disposition to quarrel with other dogs comes on early in the disease. A total loss of appetite generally succeeds; though I have seen dogs eat, and lap water, the day before their death, which generally happens between seven and ten days after the first symptom has appeared. A mad-dog will not, I believe, cry out on being struck, nor shew any sign of fear on being threatened; though he will, very late in the disease, appear sensible of kind treatment.

" I have never known a mad-dog shew symptoms of the disease in less time after the bite than ten days; and I have known many instances of dogs having died mad as late as eight months after the bite. I think the symptoms generally appear between three and eight weeks after the bite.

" A mad-dog, in the height of the disorder, has a disposition to bite all other dogs, animals, or men. When not provoked, he usually attacks only such as come in his way; but having no fear, it is peculiarly dangerous to strike at, or provoke him.

" Mad-dogs appear to be capable of communicating the infection early in the disorder, and as soon as they begin to quarrel with, or bite other dogs.

" The eyes of mad-dogs do not look red or fierce, but dull; and

have a particular appearance, which is easily distinguished by such as have been used to observe it; but not easy to be described.

“ Mad-dogs never bark, but occasionally utter a most dismal and plaintive howl, expressive of extreme distress; and which those who have once heard, can never forget. So that dogs may be known to be going mad without being seen, when only this dismal howl is heard.

“ Mad-dogs do not foam or froth at the mouth, but their lips and tongue appear dry and foul, or slimy.

“ Though mad-dogs generally refuse both food and drink in the latter stage of the disorder, yet they never shew any abhorrence or dread of water, will pass through it without difficulty, and lap it eagerly to the last. But it is remarkable, that though they lap water for a long time, and eagerly, and do not seem to experience any uneasiness from it, yet they do not appear to swallow a single drop of it; for, however long they may continue lapping it, no diminution of quantity can be perceived.

“ I am persuaded that this disorder never originates from hot weather, putrid provisions, or from any other cause but the bite. For however dogs may have been confined, however fed, or whatever may have been the heat of the season, I never knew the disorder commence without being able to trace it to that cause; and it was never introduced into the kennel but by the bite of a mad-dog.

“ The hairs of a mad-dog do not stand erect more than those of other dogs. I do not know that there is any thing remarkable in the manner of a mad-dog's carrying his head, or his tail. I do not believe that dogs are more afraid of a mad-dog than they are of any other dog that seems disposed to attack them.

“ There are two kinds of madness, both of which I have known to originate from the bite of the same dog. Among huntsmen, one is known by the name of raging, the other by that of dumb madness. In dumb madness, the nether jaw drops and is fixed, the tongue hangs out of the mouth, and slaver drops from it. In raging madness, the mouth is shut, except when the dog snaps or howls, and no moisture drops from it.” P. 176.

Dr. Fothergill gives an account of the different methods recommended, and of their failure. His own plans, we fear, do not promise better, if we except the frictions with olive-oil, in which half the quantity of camphor has been dissolved, and the internal use of olive-oil above mentioned. It is not certain, however, that any case of actual hydrophobia has been cured by the latter; and we have known many in which it has been carefully employed, both internally and externally, without success.

Mr. Wynne, in the seventeenth article, describes a pair of harrows and a drag; Mr. Pinchard, in the eighteenth, gives an account of a furrow-roller and a new drag, viz. a heavy harrow; but these admit not of any intelligible abridgement.

The queries proposed by the Board of Agriculture are next noticed by Mr. Thomas Parsons. We prefer this term to that of

the title, which says '*mostly answered.*' In fact, few are answered, and many are so indistinct and indefinite as not to admit of an answer. They chiefly relate to the physiology of vegetation, which we are sorry to see so imperfectly understood in this country. Is it not surprising that, on this subject, which includes the consideration of manures, the author should never have mentioned carbon? To discuss each answer would make our article longer than that of which it is an account; and of the replies we can only say, *Sunt bona, sunt, &c.* We would not curtail the line even of two words.

Sir John Call, in the following article; attributes the late scarcity to increase of population; and, to bring the agricultural productions to a level with the number of people, he thinks that 160,000 additional acres should be brought into tillage, and 30,000 added yearly, to provide for the annual increase of 100,000. The principal position of an increasing population to the supposed extent is, however, by no means proved.

Mr. Lewis Tugwell warmly praises the turnip-rooted cabbage, and perhaps exaggerates its utility. This was unnecessary, and will probably injure rather than add to its credit. When praise is exuberant, we begin to doubt whether there be any foundation for it at all. The method of cultivating this vegetable is, however, carefully and properly described.

'The Farmer's, Grazier's, and Butcher's Ready Reckoner,' by Lord Somerville, is a useful companion; And Mr. Wagstaff's two letters on advantageous methods of planting, the prevention of smut, &c. contain valuable remarks. The prevention of smut, according to this writer, consists in washing with pure water only.

Mr. Haskins has communicated 'some Observations on the Depredations of Insects on Fruit-Trees,' and particularly describes a little worm which penetrates the fruit-bud in its tender state. The tom-tits, he thinks, devour this worm, without really injuring the blossom, and are, in his opinion, of great service to the production of fruit, instead of lessening it.

Mr. Close offers some remarks on the value of the ruta-baga, compared with other turnips, and mentions his plan of instructing young men in the new husbandry. His terms at length are prefixed to the volume before us.

'An Account of the Premiums and Bounties given by the Bath and West of England Society for the Encouragement of the various Objects of its Institution, from the Commencement to the present Time,' gives a favourable view of the discernment of this society, and the assiduity and spirit of its members.

Mr. Sweet's 'Series of Experiments on Potatoc-Planting,' which follow, admit not of abridgement. Our author prefers the small potatoe, which has been generally thrown away.

Mr. Bartley gives a preference to potatoes raised from seeds, and thinks that in this way the sorts improve, while, in the usual method of propagation by off-sets, they degenerate. Plants from seeds sometimes attain maturity the first season. Mr. Wickins communicates an easy method of manuring for potatoes, as also a method of inducing swine to feed upon them.

'An Account of a Crop of Cabbage, for which a Premium was awarded,' follows, by Dr. Parry of Bath; to which succeeds 'a Statement of an experimental Process of Manufacture to ascertain the value of English Wool from Sheep of a Spanish Mixture.' The report is highly favourable to the former. The book concludes with 'a Report concerning the public Trial of Ploughs near Piper's Inn, in October 1798.'

We cannot dismiss this volume with any very high commendation; yet some parts are not uninteresting; and, on the whole, it may be pronounced practical and useful.

ART. IV.—*The True Churchmen ascertained; or, an Apology for those of the regular Clergy of the Establishment who are sometimes called Evangelical Ministers: occasioned by several modern Publications. By John Overton, A.B. 8vo. 6s. Boards. Mawman. 1801.*

THE evangelical controversy is daily increasing in strength. The party assuming this epithet is most active; its publications are numerous, its ministers are indefatigable. It is difficult to arraign them in such a manner that those who are most attached to the sect should not have an opportunity of vindicating themselves; and as they evidently do not reject the doctrinal articles of the church, the chief argument that can fairly be advanced against them is their general enthusiasm, and their excess with respect to some individual points. In this observation the different corps of professional critics seem in general to coincide; and we were pleased at surveying our name united with those of our brethren in support of such an opinion, since we have had intimations, from a quarter which we hold in the highest respect, of being too favourable in our review to the evangelical system. The author of the publication before us does not regard us in this light, and affords a very convenient opportunity of stating explicitly our sentiments on this great division in the church. We reprobate, as much as any evangelical clergyman can do, the iniquitous system introduced by high authority of subscribing to the articles of the church in any other way than the legislature has prescribed. The names of Watson, Paley, Hey, and many other dignitaries of the church, can never shake the validity of our opinion on this point; nor will we for a moment

give way to that looseness of principle, that jesuitical artifice, which endangers the very foundations of the church, renders the solemn act of subscribing to religious opinions a mere nullity, which constitutes an individual a judge in his own cause, and destroys the confidence which the laity ought to repose in the clerical character. Abhorrent, however, as we are from the lax principles of the latitudinarian divines on the mode of subscribing to the articles, we are not less so from the conduct of some evangelical preachers, who, because they subscribe the doctrinal articles with the utmost fidelity, think themselves justified in using a greater liberty with respect to the discipline of the church. We have expressed this sentiment already, and it is quoted with approbation in the work before us.

‘ We are perfectly of opinion with the critic, that, “ as the acquiescence of an Arian in the discipline of the church seems by no means to justify his subscription to the articles, the most rigid belief of the doctrines of the church is no” justification of a contempt for her discipline. We must therefore here take the liberty to assure this critic, that he is the farthest possible from the fact, when he represents the views and conduct of Dr. Haweis as a fair specimen of the general opinions of the clergy of the church of England who are called evangelical. The general body of these divines, as sincerely lament the schism of Dr. Haweis, as the heterodoxy of some other doctors.’
P. 399.

It would be some satisfaction, indeed, if the clergy, who are either reputed to be, or who assume to themselves the title of *evangelical*, would evince their disapprobation of such conduct in a more public manner; for it is not easy to draw the line at present between the evangelical clergy who do, and those who do not, conform entirely to the discipline of the church. An evangelical clergyman may never preach out of his parish church; yet he may, in that church, by a conduct vulgarly called *methodistical*, give great offence, and be removed, not without much difficulty, by his diocesan. His patrons may be persons who may not scruple to associate in a meeting-house, provided an evangelical preacher should conduct the religious exercises. He may view with complacency a number of persons frequenting his own church, and quitting their respective parishes, from an idea that he possesses most of the evangelical unction. He may, at an episcopal visitation, associate with his evangelical brethren alone, separating themselves entirely from the rest of the clergy, and distinguishing themselves by declining the usual compliment of dining with the bishop. He may, in short, testify his superior attachment to the party called evangelical, in a variety of instances, which must necessarily involve him in the censure incurred by those with whom he associates himself, and who do not exactly conform to the discipline of the church.

On the other hand, from the over-weening zeal of some evangelical clergymen, a degree of unpopularity is apt to accompany those exertions of the regular preacher in his pulpit and his parish, which do him the highest honour, and which we wish most earnestly to promote. Let every clergyman preach with earnestness the doctrines of the church—let him enforce them by his example and precept—let him persevere in doing his duty through good report and evil report—let him not be a severe censor on the manners, the morals, or the faith of his neighbouring brethren, allowing them to their own master to stand or fall—let him not associate himself with a body of reputed orthodox laity and clergy who, under the idea of extending evangelical sentiments of religion, are evidently forming a party in the church, or approaching to the very verge of schism. The clergyman who thus acts, whether denominated or not evangelical or methodistical, we shall presume to hold in reverence, and the example he offers shall always meet with our approbation. Be evangelical then, or methodistical, as much as you please, provided you restrain your zeal within the limits allowed by the articles you have subscribed;—obey your canons, respect your bishop, conform your discourses to the doctrines of the church;—in one word, be consistent with yourself.

The writer of the work before us would expect, we doubt not, to be ranked among the evangelical churchmen we have thus described, of whom there are, we are happy to say, numbers dispersed throughout the island, but whose attention to the duties of their own charge removes them entirely from the sphere of the new evangelical influence. He claims to be regarded as one of the true churchmen; and our readers may form some judgement as to the propriety of such a claim from the names of those writers whose works he quotes with approbation, and whose sentiments he vindicates: such are the names of Hannah More, Wilberforce, Milner, Hawker, Robison, Scott, R. Hill, Romaine, Thorntons, Fuller, Simeon. Of the lady he has expressed himself in the strongest terms—‘May it not be doubted whether even the exploits of a Nelson have contributed more towards the preservation of our national comforts than her excellent tracts have done?’—Whatever opinion, indeed, our readers may form respecting the company with which the author associates, he speaks boldly, both for himself and for them. ‘We, then, are the true churchmen; and, whatever astonishment certain critics may express at the affirmation, in a very fundamental and important sense of the word, Mr. Daubeny and his associates are dissenters from the church of England.’ *Who shall decide when doctors disagree?* Thus much, however, is certain, that, from the number of authors quoted by both parties, a very great body of the clergy of the

church are really dissenters from it, either on the one side or the other; but whether it be the names we have just cited, with their associates, or Mr. Daubeny in conjunction with bishop Watson, Drs. Paley, Hey, Croft, Polwhele, &c. &c. let those who have authority determine: yet the interests of the church must suffer if this discrepancy on its faith be permitted to continue.

To those whose duty or inclination leads them to an intimate acquaintance with the unhappy dispute now prevailing in the establishment and, we might add also, among the dissenters, this volume may be fairly recommended. In defending his own opinions with firmness, the author quotes largely and openly from his adversaries; he places in a clear point of view the chief features of the evangelical system, and supports its doctrines by an appeal to the articles and homilies of the church, and the earliest and most celebrated of the reformers. The agreement of those who succeeded the reformers with their predecessors is also pointed out, till the period of their decline by the introduction of the latitudinarian and Arminian systems; and it is proved, that, from the earliest times of the reformation to the present day, doctrines now very much exploded have been maintained by the most celebrated writers in the church, and deemed by them conformable to its articles. We cannot deny to the author very great merit for his chapter on the main question discussed, the subscription to articles, in which the opinions of Balguy, Paley, Powel, Hey, Warburton, and Croft, are brought forward; and the manly declaration of the present bishop of Lincoln is properly advanced, in opposition to all their sophistry. The real sense of the articles is then attempted to be proved from themselves, and from the writings of the reformers. The necessity of practical Christianity is next enforced; the doctrines of original sin, repentance, justification, the standard of and sanctions of morality, are next examined; individuals are vindicated who are supposed to have carried their ideas on these points too far, the obligations to subscription are enforced, and the worth of the articles ascertained. On every topic a great variety of authors on both sides of the question is quoted; so that the evangelical clergyman and his adversary may be fairly contrasted together, and the reader, by attention, be enabled to form a tolerable judgement of the grand points in dispute.

ART. V.—*The History of Mauritius, or the Isle of France, and the neighbouring Islands, from their first Discovery to the present Time; compased principally from the Papers and Memoirs of Baron Grant, who resided Twenty Years in the Island, by his Son, Charles Grant, Viscount de Vaux. Illustrated with Maps, from the best Authorities. 4to. 2l. 2s. Boards. Nicol. 1801.*

IT is properly observed, by M. de Vaux, that this volume rather merits the title of '*Mémoires pour servir à l'Histoire,*' than that of a History of the Mauritius. In fact, it contains an abstract of the different accounts of this island published by various navigators and historians; and, if not a history, is something more interesting. The casual visitants of this isolated spot are often shipwrecked or distressed mariners, occasionally the victims of delegated tyranny; and we more than once find the fabulous contrivances of Robinson Crusoe actually employed to procure their deliverance. The part most truly original is the account of the author's father, baron Grant, who resided, as the title informs us, twenty years in this island.

The Isles of France and of Bourbon, or Réunion, are the southern elevations of ground, which extend from about 21 degrees of south latitude to within a short distance from the equator on the east of Madagascar. Our author endeavours to account for their peculiar appearance; but the principle, so often stated, of a current from the west and south, will sufficiently explain the reason of their retaining the insular form. We have remarked, that on the west of every continent the coast is less broken and more abrupt. The force of the sea is terminated only by the highest and most compact mountains, and the rivers are in general found to arise near the western shore, wherever their embouchure may ultimately be: hence it arises, that on the south-east of each continent there are considerable islands, probably once connected with the continent. The land separated by the Straits of Magellan from the continent of South America is chiefly on the east; and we there find also the group of islands called the Great Malouines, or Falklands: on the south-east of India is Ceylon; on the south-east of Africa, Madagascar; on the south east of Asia, the Philippines. In the present instance, the cause of the formation of the cluster of islands of which we are now speaking is peculiarly evident. If, as is supposed, Madagascar were once united with Africa, the formation of the Mozambic channel must leave the sea on the east in an eddy; which is obvious from the numerous islands and shallows in that part. If it were not, the current to the north and west would have a similar effect.

There are, however, other views of the subject. Former travelers have spoken of volcanoes and lava. M. de Vaux de-

nies their existence; yet he describes strata which we have found generally to rest on old lava. The island of Réunion pretty certainly owes, at least, a part of its extent, viz. on the north, to volcanic eruptions. We have, however, had occasion to observe, that in the Pacific Ocean, land is generally formed from collections of coral; and it is remarkable that the shores of Mauritius abound with madrepores:—no traces, however, of these productions are found in the deepest excavations. We shall add our author's account of the strata, and leave the real cause of the appearance of land in these regions to future examination.

‘ On a first inspection of the surface of the Isle of France, there is every reason to imagine that it has undergone some violent shock, and that all the stones which are found on it have been thrown out of a volcano, or that they have proceeded from some general explosion in the island, which has occasioned the disorder wherein they now appear. Such is the general opinion in the island; but it is not from an inspection of the exterior soil alone that a right judgment can be formed of the early state of the Isle of France.

‘ When the causeys were made which serve to pass the ravines at the entrance of Moka and the Plains of Willems, a rampart was thrown up to the right and left, in the adjoining highlands, from twelve to fifteen feet in height, and the earth that was taken from them served to form the upper part of the causeys. On digging to raise these ramparts a reddish earth presented itself, intermixed with blocks of stones of different sizes, but almost all of them round. These stones are not solid, and are very brittle; and their grain is the same as that of the hard stones which are found in other parts of the island: they are enveloped in a kind of hard crust, of the same colour as the ground from which they were extracted. Every part of the island contains these stones in great abundance; some of them are of an enormous size. When the surface of the lands has been cleared, fresh ones always appear after a succession of rains, particularly in those parts where the land descends, as on the Plains of Willems.

‘ These stones are formed in the ground, and harden there as in a quarry; they cannot be broken or worked but by gunpowder and the hammer; they are withal very porous, and covered with small holes of little depth, whose cavities are filled with a kind of crystallization.

‘ The source of the Rampart river is in a mountain which cannot be less than twelve hundred feet in height. The woods, which are beautiful towards the bottom of it, diminish in its ascent, and at the top dwindle into young trees and shrub-wood. There is the fountain-head of the river, which falls a few feet in the form of a cascade, into a small bason. The water issues from the ledge of a horizontal rock which rests on a thick bank of earth of a greyish-white colour, and of a consistence to be cut with a knife, but does not harden in the air. It is covered with an infinite number of small black spots, which have the appearance of coal, but are, more probably, particles of ferruginous matter.

'In a valley at the foot of the same mountain there is very excellent stone for building, which appears to be of the same nature, or at least to have the same grain, as the earth that is at the top: it is pierced also with holes, and is full of the black particles; from whence it may be concluded that these stones are formed in the bosom of this mountain, that the substance was originally as soft as that of the earth, and that the rains and torrents having worn away one part of the mountain, these rocks have been carried down into the valley.'

v. 78.

The absence of the larger quadrupeds seems plainly to show that these islands have never formed a part of any continent; and the original idea of their having been raised from the sea by a volcano is highly probable. We have found coral islands in the Pacific which have at least owed a part of their bulk to a volcanic fire.

The first chapter relates to the harbours of the island, its dimensions, and the directions for making it. To these are added different accounts of the climate, the geographical position of different points, with a short view of its history and colonisation.

The second delineates the soil and productions of Mauritius, from M. Poivre, MM. Rochon, St. Pierre, &c. In the third, the subject is in some measure continued, with an account of the strata and the theory of the island, chiefly from the author and M. le Gentil.—The fourth and fifth chapters relate to the islands of Bourbon and Rodriguez; the former collected from a variety of different navigators.

From the 6th to the 12th chapter we chiefly find the letters of baron Grant; and these contain descriptions of the productions and the interior state of the island, with an account of the daring expeditions of the governor, M. de la Bourdonnais, against Madras, in 1746. The spirit and enterprise of this active officer seem only to be equalled by those of Bonaparte; but the success was very dissimilar.

The 13th chapters contains instructions for sailing to India by the Isles of France and Bourbon, and a memoir on the archipelago on the east of Madagascar, as well as the dangers to which ships are subject in these seas, by M. d'Après Manneville. The same subject, in different circumstances and situations, is continued in the three following chapters; and it is illustrated by a chart of the *Æthiopic Ocean*, and the life of M. d'Après Manneville.

In the 18th and 19th chapters are various astronomical and geographical observations respecting the Isle of France, by abbé de la Caille; followed, in the 20th, by the life of that astronomer.—In the 21st are the astronomical and other observations of M. le Gentil.

Chapters 22, 23, 24, and 25, relate to India, the settlement

of Pondicherry, the affairs of India under count Lally, M. Dupleix, &c. in the seven-years' war. The three next chapters contain miscellaneous, chiefly nautical, information respecting the Isle of France, by admiral Kempenfelt, M. Rochon, M. St. Pierre, captain Munro, the abbé Raynal, and M. Cossigny, with an account of the isles and sand-banks between the Isle of France and the Maldivé Islands, by M. Rochon, and of the Comora Islands, by Spilberg. The last chapter relates to the history of the Isle of France within a few preceding years, including the rash and impolitic negotiations of Tippoo, and the more extravagant attempts of the National Assembly to carry into the Isle of France the mistaken humanity of negro emancipation.

From this account it will be obvious that the greater part of this volume consists of compilation; but it will be equally evident that the materials are important, interesting, and with difficulty to be obtained elsewhere. To follow minutely the whole would be little suitable to our situation, and not very entertaining to the general reader; so that we shall select some accounts of the island from the letters of baron Grant, which form the principal part of what may be considered as the original matter. The first extract is a general description of the island, in the sixth chapter.

‘ It will not appear surprising that the far greater part of the military officers whom war has conducted to this island should wish to fix their abode in it, when all the circumstances attached to it are faithfully enumerated: a delightful climate, a clear sky, and a soil which produces every thing that is useful and gratifying to man. While mountains, whose summits are never covered with snow, and whose declivities, bright with verdure, are contrasted with towering rocks, compose amphitheatres, which present a varied and picturesque scene of grandeur and beauty.

‘ From the tops of the hills, small streams and rivers of a pure and limpid water gush forth, and, forming beautiful cascades as they fall, wind at length through the valleys which they fertilise and adorn, at once enriching the country and refreshing the dwellings of the happy inhabitants.

‘ Africa and Asia dispute the property of this island, which nature has placed in the vast expanse of the Indian Ocean; but our modern geographers, better instructed than the Ptolemies and the Strabos, have assigned it to the first of these two ancient quarters of the globe; though it is altogether free from the dangerous animals with which those continents are infested.

‘ Certain parts of the forests have been cleared, particularly in the neighbourhood of Port Louis, &c. and plantations established.

‘ There is but the difference of an hour between the longest and the shortest day.

‘ I shall not mention in this place the violence of the winds, which has already been particularly detailed; at the same time I shall just

observe, that the rains form our happiness, not only because they refresh the air, and are never of long duration, but as they are the first cause of the fertility which is our boast.' P. 189.

'In the Isle of France, the banks of the rivers were no sooner deprived of their shade than the water became wholesome, but the destruction of all the wood in the environs of Port Louis was a fatal error, as it is now exposed to the violence of the winds, as well as to the heat of the sun, and several of the neighbouring rivulets have been dried up.

'At this moment (1740) an eighth part of the island is not yet cleared, so that it will be long before the population is equal to the extent.

'If, however, we are not rich in cattle, we possess a great abundance of fowl, as well as both land and sea turtle, which are not only a great resource for the supply of our ordinary wants, but serve to barter with the crews of ships who put in here for refreshment in their voyage to India.

'The time of my arrival, which was the month of August, is the winter season in this island; if I may employ such an expression in a country where the houses are built without chimnies, except for the purposes of the kitchen.

'The summer is very dry, and the ground is in a state of aridity during that season. The warm rains then succeed, giving such vigour to vegetation that the weeds frequently prevail over the regular crops, which are two-fold in the course of the year. In this season is sown the maize, which serves as the food of the negroes, as well as the rice, which the Creole ladies prefer to the finest bread, though simply boiled in water, and without the least seasoning: they, however, season their favourite dishes, which they call *caris* and *plots*, with the hottest spices.

'In the months of May and June we sow our corn, which we reap at the end of September, as well as various kinds of beans, the greater part of which is sent to the magazines of the company, to be ready for supplying the ships. Corn generally produces an hundred-fold.

'When the grass springs up in the rainy seasons, it is necessary to take care that the cattle do not gorge themselves with it, which would be attended with fatal consequences. This year has been marked with sterility, and our island is menaced with dearth: indeed, it has happened that the negroes and labourers have been necessarily sent to live by hunting in the woods, or the produce of the waters.

'The coasts abound in fish, which have been already described, as well as the enormous eels that are found in the rivers. I have frequently killed them with my gun in shallow waters. In the rainy and hurricane seasons these rivers become stupendous cataracts. Our venison, which is fat, is very good, and serves us instead of beef; but it must be got from the forests, where the deer are very numerous: on account of the heat and their fat they are easily taken. It is, however, a circumstance to be lamented, that, from the temperature of the air, fresh meat cannot be kept longer than two days.

‘ The birds very much diminish in the woods, as the monkeys, which are in great numbers, devour their eggs. The parroquets, however, are still numerous, as they make their nests in the holes of the rocks, which the monkeys cannot ascend.

‘ The governor’s house and the company’s magazines, which are situated at the entrance of the port, are built entirely of stone; the latter are placed in front on each side of the former, and the intermediate space, which is considerable, is used as a place of arms. These edifices are erected in the Italian style, with flat roofs, which serve as terraces. This small town is the habitation of all those who are employed in the service of government, as well as of merchants and others who are not possessed of plantations.’ P. 194.

‘ That the daughter-in-law of the czar Peter, the wife of the ignorant and brutal czarowitz Alexis, should have lived in this island long after she was believed to be dead in Europe, is a circumstance truly singular, and, in its events, highly interesting. This account has been copied in the Asiatic Annual Register, and would form an impressive paper for a magazine; but it is too long for our present purpose.

Why the Isle of France was not considered as a proper object of conquest in the present war, we cannot say. It could not perhaps have been retained; for it would have deprived France of all its influence in India; and its rulers would not, therefore, have consented to relinquish it openly: they have tacitly done so, however, by allowing us the possession of Ceylon. We shall add only our author’s concluding remarks.

‘ First. The Isle of France imports from Europe almost all its necessities and objects of consumption, except linen, cotton, and stuffs, which it obtains from the coasts of Coromandel and Bengal; China-ware and silk from China; its corn is partly of its own growth, and of the Isle of Bourbon; the surplus consumption of its bread and biscuit is imported in flour from Europe and New England. It imports its rice, (besides what it grows itself), from Madagascar and other ports of India; its slaves, for the most part, are brought from the coast of Africa and Madagascar.

‘ Second. In 1779 all the business was solely carried on in the commodities of the colony, or in piastres (a Spanish coin, value about five shillings English). There was still in circulation the paper currency issued by the administrators in the name of the French republic; but as it was constantly diminishing in value, the colonial assembly settled it irrevocably in 1798, by a *depôt* of merchandise destined for the payment of the paper currency then in circulation, the value of which to money was only in proportion of one to a thousand; so that a stamp-paper currency, or note, for ten thousand francs was then only worth ten francs in commerce. On this basis the redemption of the paper currency was ultimately fixed.

‘ Third. The plan of forming the Isle of France into a general *entrepôt* has not been followed up: 1st, Because it is more advantageous to obtain all articles of merchandise from the place itself,

which produces or manufactures them. 2d, Because, although the Indian sailors have much less pay than those of Europe, this point alone does not render the navigation of vessels in India more economical, or more advantageous, than the navigation of European vessels, as the latter navigate them better, and a crew of European sailors does not amount to one third of those required by the vessels of India*.' P. 571.

It may perhaps be observed with justice, that, in this volume, although authors of very different characters have been resorted to for contributions; although it contains much which does not properly belong to the subject, and, on the whole, but little in comparison which can be considered as original: yet, notwithstanding this remark, the collection of documents it offers is important, and to us the work itself has been interesting. Whether all its readers may be of the same opinion, will admit of some doubt.

ART. VI.—*The Millennium. Cantos II. & III.* 8vo. 5s. sewed.
Kearsley. 1801.

THE signs of the Millennium are too strong to be doubted by any one who sees into futurity with a poet's eye; and our author has completed his purpose in two additional cantos, bringing us in the conclusion to the very threshold of the promised land. The second canto opens with an apostrophe to Avarice—in which Elwes, Jennings, and Fuller, afford sufficient matter for the verse, as well as a copious fund of anecdote and instruction for the notes. From this detested vice the poet turns to a more distinguished feature of modern times, and celebrates the feats of Prodigality, who seems now to reign with unlimited controul over every rank of life. She appears in our senate diffusing millions at a word—every member vying with his neighbour in granting supplies beyond the most sanguine expectations of the minister. She shows herself next in the treasury, where, in a moment, as soon as such supplies are granted,

‘the total tide is fled,
Not one sole guinea shows its monarch's head.’ P. 23.

We find her next in the rage for sights and public amusements, where, whatever may have been the ardour for gain, the desire to expend it follows with at least an equal pace. But this liberal profusion of the age is not, it should seem, at all times exercised without judgement; for—

* The principal advantage which the Isle of France derives from its ports and situation is that of its being a military *dépôt*. On this account it would be necessary that its mother-country should have the superiority by sea. A commercial *entrepôt* would then be the natural consequence.

'Here none can starve! the sons of genius least,—
Their death deplored, their life a public feast.' P. 47.

And sufficient proofs are given, of the encouragement to merit, in the largesses bestowed on Porson, Paley, Parr, Vincent, Knox, &c. &c. Our soup-shops and potatoe-parings are daily prepared for the million, which, according to Mr. Colquhoun, wake devoid of food; and their various arts for the attainment of an easy subsistence are described; among which those of the notorious M-rt-nd-le are justly celebrated. The name of Waddington could not remain unsung; and the exploded doctrines of our ancestors, on monopolies, show our superior progress in knowledge, and, consequently, political happiness. These improvements are not confined to any one class of society; the sons of the healing art put in their claim for distinction. Perkins with his twin skewers—Prescot with prayers and nut-brown ale—Stott with electric fire—are all delineated with equal felicity; and vital air, with the vaccine power, remove every ill from those who do not choose to heal themselves at a still less expence, by exercising the energies of mind over matter. The powers of matter, its passions, loves, and hates, are drawn from the Darwinian system: and the progress of the soul is seen in the important discoveries made by Mr. Bryant, Mr. Allwood, and the French National Institute; in the overthrow of the Newtonian system; in the conversion of the sun into a ball of ice, and, above all, in the attendance on Dr. Garnett's lectures, where

—'ladies join the scientific toil;' P. 110.

and, leaving all the wonted amusements of their sex, are studious to promote the best interests of 'truth, virtue, and wisdom.'

Such are the happy facts and prospects with which the second canto terminates; and nothing seems to remain but to celebrate the rising period with suitable gratulations. An enemy, however, is unfortunately detected, who has long threatened to destroy all our hopes; and his rise and fall are sung in the third and last canto. This detested foe, equally an enemy to social order, to religion, and to verse—*quem versu dicere non est*—undergoes a little transformation before he can be suited to English metre; and the poet, on the undoubted authority of Hudibras, who uses a similar liberty with his trusty 'squire, curtails the monster of a syllable, and converts Jacobinism into Jacobism. The epithets applied to this last and foulest enemy of the human race are borrowed from the charges and speeches of the great champion of this canto—bishop Horsley; and, 'born in hell—in hell begot—infernal Jacobism—infuriate fiend,' become the muse not less than the 'desk divine.' The origin of the monster being settled, the hardy sons of Britain—Burke, Horsley, Pitt, Hawkesbury,

Portland, Windham—are roused to the attack; but the generous ardour now flaming in their veins does not obliterate in the poet's memory the period when they themselves had caught the infection, and were zealously engaged in propagating this detestable cause. The Thatched-House club, the treacherous memory of Mr. Pitt, and the system of Sunday-schools, rise up to view, and prepare us for the great miracle, when

‘ North now dragged out, no sooner Pitt rushed in
Than conscience stung him for each former sin,
Convulsed his quivering limbs with dæmon-quake,
And o’er his eye-balls poured the fiery lake.
No muse can tell, nor every muse combined,
The secret sufferings, then, that wrung his mind;
For us suffice it briefly here to tell
By godly grief he ’scaped the wrath of hell,
Revoked his creed, and turned, with all his might,
A blessed renegado to the right.
Now, as though purged with euphrasy and rue,
The world far diff’rent rises o’er his view:
Thrones now are sacred, and the people things
Made for the use of ministers and kings:
He sees what horrors from reform must flow,
And guards the senate from so dire a blow;
His plighted troth from schismatics withdraws,
And deems the Test the first of human laws.

‘ O, truly wise! who, early led astray,
Could shake at once each prejudice away,
Quit the false precepts of his sire so soon,
And e’en from errors work a public boon.
He saw the fatal storm himself had planned,
Still with fresh vigor raging through the land;
He saw, with every tide, sedition pour
Through frantic Europe from the Atlantic shore;
The Gorgon-limbs, tremendous to behold,
Of infant Jacobism in France unfold,
Religion, order, threaten’d to their source—
And felt, with rising dangers, rising force;
For new croisades his banners wide unfurl’d,
And singly stood the champion of the world.’ P. 166.

The blessed effects of this salutary miracle are seen in the erection of solitary cells and barracks, in the banishment of the Habeas-corpus, in the adoption of the famous twin-laws (misnamed the gagging acts), in the conflagration of a philosopher's house at Birmingham, in the restored brilliancy of the church, and the religious humility and prostration of the state—

‘ In annual sackcloth see the land appears
Meagre with fasts, with penitence, and tears!’ P. 181.

in the suppression of the conventicle drum, in the pious cares

of the bishop of Durham for the chastity of the Opera-house, in the zeal of the bishop of Lincoln for a new set of Elements of Christianity, but, above all, in the holy war-whoop of the bishop of Rochester, who

—‘ rushes with uplifted hands,
And speaks in thunder heaven’s supreme commands.’ p. 188.

His is the destined office to point out the abode of the monster—his to describe all its arts, and the mode of resisting them—his to blow the alarm, and to rouse the world to the new crusade.

‘ ’Tis Heaven’s command—revere the voice divine,
Join hand to hand—let cross and crescent join.
Who hails the league eternal glory gains;
Who with the beast combines—eternal pains:
War through the world—the state that shuns the blow
Is Christ’s, is Mahomet’s, is Mary’s foe.’ p. 196.

The battle now rages: all that

—‘ British threats, or British gold, can gain,’

have rushed to the fight;—the victory will soon be decided, and the bard

‘ Sees the foul beast in struggling torments die,
Hears her last groan, and joins the victor cry.’

Earth, heaven, sun, moon, and stars, are called upon to salute the British isle on this glorious victory,—due solely to her efforts, and those of the illustrious prelate who takes the lead in the holy warfare. Pitt, immortalised, quits his post like another Cincinnatus or Washington, to take up the plough;—and at Armagh the blest Millennium is completely to be unfolded. Mr. Dobbs, the Irish member, had fully prepared us for this event: but the poet only could have divulged the reason of a momentary delay. The see of Armagh was vacant: bishop Horsley applies for it; but lord Cornwallis being unfortunately ignorant of the immense blessings which would have resulted from acceding to the bishop’s application, and the glories which must necessarily have dignified his vice-royalty, confers it on the worthy prelate who now adorns (and long may he continue to adorn) that see: on the next vacancy, however, the fates will be accomplished—bishop Horsley will be inaugurated, and the Millennium will commence under his auspices.

‘ The church of Christ, now militant no more,
Hails thee, triumphant, to Ierne’s shore;
While heaven and earth with gratulations rend,
O man of God! thy destined seat ascend.’ p. 208.

Such are the outlines of the poem before us, which, both in the verse and subjoined notes, is possessed of very considerable merit; and, in point of learning, may claim the precedence of the heroes in, and even the author himself of, the Pursuits of Literature. Like Dr. Ogden of famous memory, the poet frequently 'clothes his thoughts in Arabic, and sets us at defiance.' Greek, Latin, Italian, Spanish, Portuguese, and German, alternately dignify his page, and at least to as much purpose as the less learned quotations of his rival in this species of writing. If these learned notes, of which there can be no doubt, were meant to show the absurdity of crowding a work with extracts, which nine out of ten of his readers cannot understand, he has most assuredly succeeded to the fullest extent of his wishes; and it is to be hoped that, with this example before them, our Græco-latinising writers will be in future more sparing of their school-boy reading, or at least prove that they understand it themselves, by transfusing the supposed elegance of the original into their native idiom.

From the rapidity of the author's conceptions, and his haste to give them to the public, it sometimes happens that his irony is in danger of being lost upon the public, who must be doubtful whether he be in jest or earnest. It is not every one who knows that the first Greek scholar of the age, who is here represented as being

—————'swelled, with pension and beef-steak,
To giant bulk—' P. 48.

is of a figure diametrically the reverse, and is doomed to see the rewards due to literature bestowed on his inferior in years and learning, and the whole extent of his public patronage amounting to a meagre professorship of forty pounds a-year. Dr. Paley, on the contrary, is provided for in a more liberal manner than is stated in the note, and the verse is more correct, for he is really

—————'raised to dignity so high,
Beyond 'twere madness in the man to try!' P. 49.

To call one of the richest livings in the diocese of Durham, and a residentiaryship in the cathedral of Lincoln, collateral and minor preferments, proves our author little acquainted with the œconomy of the church. It is probable, however, that he imagines the merits of Dr. Paley should have entitled him to a prelacy.

In his philosophy, also, our author might have taken rather greater pains to obtain accurate information; and he would then have spoken in a more respectful manner of an eminent patron of science. The character of baron Maseres stands much too

high to be affected by a poet's note, which is to solve the dispute on negative and impossible quantities by a graduated thermometer; yet the poet might have learned that the rejection of Newton's 'quantities below nothing' is not a new idea just started by the baron; for it is now upwards of forty years since he gave his thoughts to the public on this subject. It was not Newton, also, that introduced these imaginary quantities: and the adoption of them, by so great a name, is not to be a sanction for error.

But, if some of the poet's notes might have been curtailed or expunged, others carry with them strong proofs of great powers of mind, as well as political knowledge. We should recommend particularly those which refer to the pretended conspiracy against the Christian religion, where the absurdities of Horsley, Barruel, Robison, &c. &c. are properly exposed, by an examination of the talents, union, and designs, of the pretended, in contrast with the real conspirators. The notes on Mr. Pitt's preferment to the office of prime-minister, his tergiversation, and the pretexts of his want of power in certain cases, are written in strong nervous language; and multitudes will unite with our author in asking the following questions.

'What then are we to say as to the character of this extraordinary man? Let us look to the description of parliament which has uniformly accompanied him almost from his first elevation to ministerial authority;—and are we to believe him in these various assertions of want of power—or, believing, are we to lament that whenever he had a prospect of benefiting his country, and of performing a good action, this want of power should uniformly have accompanied him; while, at the same time, he was never deficient in power, even to the possession of its utmost plenitude, whenever an opportunity occurred of trampling upon the constitution, subverting its most inestimable rights, and plunging the great body of the people into the utmost misery and distress?' P. 171.

The hints thrown out on the equality of barter, and the present destruction of the level of trade, in a note on the well-known Mr. Waddington, may be amplified by this writer to great advantage; and he will do well to inquire how far, and in what manner, the corn-market is under the management of any set of men who can, by their intrigues, raise or decrease the price of so necessary a commodity.

'Competition, to be serviceable to the public, must be competition between necessitous men; but, in the present instance, necessity is out of the question: the ostensible competitors are raised above want; they associate together, and determine, by mutual compact or combination, on the outline of the price at which their commodities are to be either bought or sold. To the principle of interest there is now a law of honour introduced among them, coercing them

to abide by the general determination; and consequently it can make no difference to the nation at large, whether the market be in this way subjugated by the purse of an individual, or the purses of many, united into one common sum and confederating for one common object.' P. 87.

This important subject will probably attract the attention of the legislature very early in the (present) session: too great caution, however, cannot be taken before an alteration is made in the existing system.

'Practically or speculatively considered, therefore, a restrictive system of laws seems to be a system of justice, a duty incumbent upon the legislature in mercy to all who have not property enough to engage in such commercial confederacies. It is absurd to suppose that the general spirit of trade would be hereby paralysed; it would, on the contrary, be strengthened and augmented; and if the merchant who clears six thousand pounds a-year were, in consequence, rendered incapable of clearing more than three, he would still have stimulus enough to induce him to continue, and perhaps to double, his exertions.' P. 88.

We can more easily ask than answer another question proposed in the note on this subject.

'Why should the journeymen of any particular trade be restrained from a monopoly of their own labour, or, which is the same thing, from conjointly refusing to vend their labour under a definite sum, while their masters are under no restraint of any kind, and have free liberty of combining together in order to impose on the public, whatever additional price they may choose to demand? while merchants and manufacturers of every description are protected in their speculations, their monopolies, their enormous profits? In point of general consistency, therefore, our code of trade laws ought to be equally and universally restrictive, or it ought to forbear from all restraint whatever. To maintain a check upon some parts of the community, while others are left totally at liberty, is to exercise an authority unnatural, unjustifiable, and tyrannical.' P. 89.

The system of politics adopted by our author is obvious; yet he never suffers it to prevent him from panegyrising those of the opposite party, who, in his judgement, deserve it, nor from lashing those of his own mode of thinking who are of impure or questionable morals. There is an independency of mind discoverable in this conduct, of which all must equally approve: yet we cannot but wish that the services done to the public by an eminent character in the city had precluded his name from being coupled in any transaction with that of a bankrupt gambler; nevertheless, the effrontery with which men of high rank and noble birth transgress the laws of their country in notorious gambling-houses—greater pests to society than the meetings of the lower orders, which the police-office occasionally interrupts—requires the utmost exertions and indig-

nation of the satirist. As to the poet's advice to 'noblemen, and gentlemen of fashion,' to gamble 'at their own houses, or rooms among their own immediate friends,' we think it not very consistent with his general attention to the duties of morality. Besides, friends can never gamble: it is a prostitution of the term friendship, to suppose that friends could rob each other of their property in this manner; and debts of honour, as they are falsely termed, are not more legally nor more fairly contracted in the saloon of a peer, than at the hell of Newmarket. Instead of recommending noblemen, and gentlemen of fashion, to gamble in each other's houses rather than at promiscuous meetings, the nobleman should be taught, that he is a disgrace to the peerage, if he admits such proceedings in his house; and the gentleman of fashion, who pursues the trade of the card-table, should be informed that he is engaged in the worst species of commerce.

As our poet manifests a sufficient command of his pen in prose composition, he should have been upon his guard lest the verse should suffer by it, and be in danger of being considered merely as subservient to his notes. This is not really the case; but when, to make a rhyme, he talks of 'the rains that fall,' of 'pleasure with voluptuous eye,' or ekes out his lines on him,

'The man of war, and eke of merry *pim*,
Windham by name, an arch facetious wag,
Who slips the cat too frequent from the bag;' P. 26.

we must condemn the poet either of negligence or indifference. This *pim*, attributed to Mr. Windham, is necessary, we see, on account of the rhyme; but what it means we confess ourselves unable to make out, as nothing that we have heard of the public or private character of this gentleman throws any light upon the subject. The execution of a poor culprit scarcely required the poet's illustration—that he was,

—'in ambient air,
A scare-crow hung to all who thus may dare!' P. 142.

But we will not search too narrowly for little slips which must follow where the poet dictates—*stans pede in uno*—his hundred or two of verses. The facility with which he writes is a greater call on him for future correction; and it is not sufficient to have conceived the plan of a poem: the whole should have been digested and composed before a single line was presented to the public.

The poet is well acquainted with medical anecdotes; and the fashionable mode of inoculation is appositely introduced into his poem.

'O wise beyond repute! though every age,
Informed or rude, alike repute you sage,
Ye sons of Egypt! in the world's first dawn
Who deemed the cow the goddess of the lawn,

Saw heaven on her its choicest influence shower,
And founded altars to the vaccine power—
Lo! at the distance of four thousand years
We catch the radiance of your sacred seers;
Apis and Isis now resume their sway,
And Britain hastes her homage first to pay.
See Beddoes, of the vaccine church high-priest,
New temples rearing to the heavenly beast!
Daughters of Britain! ye whose withered cheek
And labouring breath pulmonic ills bespeak,
Should medicine fail, here seek advice divine,
'Mid the sweet influence of celestial kine!
Here bring your beds, your flaccid frames repose,
And drink from cows the lily and the rose!
Ye spotless babes, whose lips have never prest
Aught but the nectar of a mother's breast,
Now flushed with health, yet doom'd by loathsome ails
To lose, perchance, the bloom that still prevails,
Here be ye brought, and Jenner shall prepare,
From the foul dug, the pest to keep you fair—
Plant the vile antidote beneath your skin,
And pox without defy by pox within!' p. 94.

We could cull many other beauties from this poem; but, from the extracts already given, our readers will form a sufficient judgment of its general character. It abounds with genuine traits of true satire, devoid of that malignity which is the chief characteristic of the poem the present is evidently intended to rival. That it will not meet with equal success, we can easily prognosticate: for few readers can taste the beauties of parallel passages in a variety of languages; and the rest are more pleased with epigrams, than essays, in the notes. Still the attempt does the writer great credit. He will soar hereafter on loftier pinions; and, if he keep in mind the indefatigable pains of a Pope in polishing his lines, an attention to the Horatian precept may be beneficial to his future exertions.

ART. VII.—*Remarks, Critical and Miscellaneous, on the Commentaries of Sir William Blackstone.* By James Sedgwick, of Pembroke College, Oxford. 4to. 18s. Boards. Robinsons. 1800.

WE have often had occasion to observe that it is of importance to correct the errors of men whose abilities and character stamp a superior authority on what they utter, particularly on what they publish after mature consideration. From sir William Blackstone's work the young lawyer draws his first principles of jurisprudence, the general scholar a comprehensive view of our laws, our senators their principles both of law and go-

vernment: yet perhaps, independently of a supposed bias, the Commentaries contain many loose positions, much inconclusive reasoning, particularly respecting the origin of society, the source of laws, and the first lines of government. These it is Mr. Sedgwick's chief object to examine. Of Mr. justice Blackstone's work he thinks highly, and of its faults he speaks freely.

‘Those who read much, and think more, must frequently have remarked, that many propositions which, singly and detached, appear extravagant and preposterous, are discovered, when linked to the great chain with which they are connected, to be truths of the highest moment and nearest concern; and, on the contrary, that positions, the brilliancy and acuteness of which strike us with uncommon force when contemplated in the abstract, are no sooner associated with the corollaries deducible from and dependent upon them, than their fallacy appears manifest, and we are compelled to reject them as illusive. It was, perhaps, scarcely possible for the author of the Commentaries on the Laws of England to give to every postulate contained in that very elaborate and extremely valuable work, all that previous investigation which the comprehensiveness of their consequence might respectively deserve. It is a labour hardly to be expected from any single mind. On the excellence of the work itself, as an animated and masterly outline of one of the most interesting and inestimable of human sciences, it were superfluous to enlarge. The luminous perspicuity of style, the felicity of arrangement, the copiousness of intelligence, the conciseness of delineation, which it so amply exhibits, have deservedly procured to it the rank and commendation it has obtained. It is not the least praise of the author, that he has digested and disposed in a lucid and harmonious plan what before lay in fragment and dispersion. With the skill of a master-workman, he has collected the scattered materials, and formed them into a beautiful, compact, and noble edifice. He has decorated that edifice with taste,—he has adorned it with art,—he has given to it a polish and symmetry, which has made it a subject of constant admiration to others, and of immortal reputation to himself.’ P. vi.

With the Critical and Miscellaneous Remarks we have been much pleased. Mr. Sedgwick, who is a warm friend to the present constitution, and often employs the Commentaries as the text of his own opinions, examines a variety of positions with peculiar acuteness and no common precision, while he expresses both his sentiments and objections with accuracy and with a luminous elegance. Few writers can stand the ordeal of such critical acumen. Yet, while we praise this author for his remarks and for his animadversions, we perceive him to be often hypercritical. He catches at an objection, which he displays with his own eloquence, and makes us for a moment forget that the argument may be taken in other views, and that it may hinge on other points. After a careful examination of the work, we

thus found a difficulty in arranging our own ideas respecting it. We should have wished to have examined it minutely; but its miscellaneous nature, some different objects, and the difficulties in which we should be involved by the extent of many of the inquiries, prevented the execution of this design:—to pass it over with a short notice would have been unjust and disrespectful; we have, therefore, steered a middle course, and, having given this general character, shall add a specimen or two of our author's particular opinions, with some concise remarks. An instance of hypercriticism occurs very early.

"As man," says Sir W. Blackstone*, "depends upon his Maker for every thing, it is necessary that he should, in all points, conform to his Maker's will: this will is called the law of nature."—But what conclusive evidence, what explicit manifestation, it is natural to ask, have we of this law? From what source are we to derive our knowledge of the rules it has prescribed? Are they to be found in the axioms and apophthegms delivered by the prudent, and digested by the wise? Do they take rise in the arbitrary transactions of mankind? No.—"They were founded," it is answered, "in those relations of justice that existed in the nature of things antecedently to any positive precept†." Nothing is more discouraging to a philosophical student, than that recurrence of unintelligible terms so frequent in metaphysical disquisitions; terms, to which those who adopt them attach no precise meaning, and which, being little better than empty sounds, can contribute nothing either to the removal of prejudice, or the illustration of truth.

"The nature of things," as has been truly observed by an acute and very sensible writer‡, "could not subsist before the things of which it was the nature; for by things must be understood the substances existing."—The variable and indistinct suggestions of untaught reason, as they may be either true or false, according to the soundness or imbecillity of the mind from which they emanate, cannot claim to be considered as laws. Every law is in its nature and essence a precise and positive command: our author has himself defined it to be "a rule of action, prescribed by some superior being§."—It is manifest, therefore, that laws could not exist antecedently to any positive precept.

* With respect to the pre-existing relations of justice, it may be remarked, that it is not until the appearance of injustice that the idea of justice is impressed upon the mind||. In the commerce of fallible beings with each other, those who suffer wrong, connecting and

* Com. p. 39. v. 1.

† Com. v. 1. p. 40.

‡ Tucker. See Search's Light of Nature Pursued, v. 1. § Com v. 1. p. 38.

|| So, likewise, if the lineaments and outline of the human figure were at all times and every where uniform, we should have no idea of personal beauty or deformity; there would be nothing to suggest any such distinction. In society, it is not until by degrees the manners of a few superior individuals have become more graceful and refined, that we form any notion of grossness or inelegance in deportment: these discriminative perceptions, like that of justice, spring from comparison, nor would ever have been conveyed to the mind but by their contraries.

comparing the consequences of an opposite conduct, gain the correlative perception of right: rules are thence collected, which may serve for general direction; these rules, as experience demonstrates their reasonableness and utility, are at length digested, and, being enforced under pains and penalties, they assume the nature and name of laws. It being the express and sole purpose of these laws to regulate the moral conduct of man, it seems clear, they could not precede in existence the agent whose actions they were expressly intended to controul.' P. 2.

The relations of justice must be co-eval with the existence of men, and it is of their application that sir W. Blackstone speaks. 'Laws, indeed, could not exist antecedently to any positive precept;' but the laws, as our author might have observed in a succeeding passage, are the application only of the general principles of justice, which must have existed more early. It is this which makes laws prolix, and perhaps tedious; viz. the adapting the application of the principle to a greater variety of circumstances, in order to prevent arbitrary interpretations. Mr. Sedgwick must confess that right and wrong exist previously to their application to particular actions; for of these the principle is predicated by the commendation or censure attached: nor is it clear that no idea can be entertained of justice until some appearance of injustice have occurred. To take our author's own instance, might not some individual and striking manner have been exhibited—a manner peculiarly graceful, and superior to that of the common herd, without the occurrence of a singular instance of inelegance or grossness? An object may also become extremely striking as an imperfection; it may sink below as well as rise above the line.

Another instance of hypercriticism we notice, because it may be shortly explained. Burying in woollen is mentioned by Blackstone as a matter of indifference; yet, in another place, it is said to be connected with the staple manufactory of the kingdom. This appears to Mr. Sedgwick a contradiction; but the matter of indifference is undoubtedly to the person buried, or the law would have been useless or childish.

Much has been said by modern reformers of the ancient republics and the advantages of democracy. Our author gives a strictly correct view of each.

'But let us attend to the reasoning which is brought to support this theory. "In a democracy, where the right of making laws resides in the people at large, public virtue, or goodness of intention, is more likely to be found than either of the other qualities of government. Popular assemblies are frequently foolish in their contrivance; and weak in their execution; but generally mean to do the thing that is right and just, and have always a degree of patriotism or public spirit. In aristocracies there is more wisdom to be found than in the other frames of government; being composed, or intended to be

composed, of the most experienced citizens: but there is less honesty than in a republic, and less strength than in a monarchy.

‘ If this reasoning be well grounded, it were most to be desired that the functions of legislation should be exercised by the people at large. Nature is not greatly partial in the bestowal of her gifts; and some superior minds, it may be expected, would always spring forward to direct the incorrupt zeal and generous aim of the less enlightened: at the worst, this general purity of intention would reach its object sooner, and secure it better, than that wisdom, which in aristocracies is said to be ill supported by probity. The well-disposed may err by accident, but the dishonest will do wrong by design.

‘ But what ground of persuasion have we, that, where there is little intelligence there is more integrity; or, that where there is more wisdom there will be less virtue? There is nothing in ignorance that should awaken the spirit of justice, or in knowledge that should repress it. There seems to be no natural connexion between dulness and democracy, nor between reason and rank; somewhat of relation, however, may, and certainly does, exist between wisdom and rectitude. He whose understanding is invigorated by the principles of moral truth and liberal science is likely to have more of magnanimity in his conduct, and of uprightness in his views, than another of mean capacity and narrow attainments. The legislator that brings to his task a vigorous and practised mind has his instruments always about him:—the man of feeble intellect comes to work without his tools.

‘ The documents of history will not bear our author out in his assertion, That patriotism, or public spirit, always, more or less, pervades the views and measures of popular assemblies. Selfishness, caprice, excessive corruption, and a lavish mis-application of the public money, are the prominent features of the ancient democracies. In Athens, so much celebrated as the model of a popular constitution, the citizens were rarely actuated in the choice of their leaders by reverence of their talents, or affection for their virtues. All, whose birth, eloquence, or authority, rendered them formidable, were exposed, whatever were their merits or their services, to the most flagrant oppression. Neither the intrepid patriotism of Miltiades, nor the stern integrity of Aristides, could save them from persecution. Eminent valour, and conspicuous talent, served only to draw down envy and suspicion. It was impossible for any illustrious leader to shun this general malignity, unless, with the most consummate ability, he combined that suavity of manners, that flexibility of principle, and that subtle, deep, intriguing spirit, that might qualify him to play successfully with the vices and foibles of his weak and giddy countrymen. When the Athenian generals and legislators most deserved the thanks and admiration of their fellow-citizens, we find them thwarted, vexed, suspected, impeached; one moment hailed by the populace with the most enthusiastic applause; the next, arraigned by the same fickle multitude, and driven into exile. No sooner had any one, by his virtues or his victories, pushed onward to renown, than he became an object of jealousy; and the tyrannous ostracism expelled him from his country, until some unexpected revolution within, or some imminent danger from without, recalled him to its rescue and preservation.’ P. 35.

Should we notice every thing of which we highly approve, or what we could in part object to, our article would be very long. Of our author's merits we have already spoken. His chief faults are too great eagerness, perhaps a disposition to be too minute, an apparent anxiety to hunt for errors. The present volume extends only to the first book of the Commentaries. With some attention to the hints now communicated, his future criticisms will be more valuable.

ART. VIII.—*A Voyage to the East-Indies; containing an Account of the Manners, Customs, &c. of the Natives, with a Geographical Description of the Country. Collected from Observations made during a Residence of Thirteen Years, between 1776 and 1789, in Districts little frequented by the Europeans. By Fra Paolino da San Bartolomeo, Member of the Academy of Velitri, &c. With Notes and Illustrations by John Reinhold Forster, LL.D. Translated from the German by William Johnston. 8vo. 8s. Boards. Vernor and Hood.*

THIS author, before he embraced the monastic life, was known by the name of John Philip Wesdin, and was born in 1748. Previous to his voyage, he was for seven years professor of oriental languages in the Propaganda at Rome; and, during a long residence on the coast of Malabar, acquired the common (Tamulic) language, as well as the Sanscrit. Of the latter he published a grammar, after his return.

The present version is the shadow of a shade; yet it has gained even by its translation; for the original, which appeared at Rome in 1796, was translated by John Reinhold Forster, and published at Berlin in 1798, illustrated with some important notes. The Berlin edition is the prototype of the present; and, while the accuracy of Mr. Forster leaves us nothing to regret of real utility, the notes add greatly to the value of the original.

“His knowledge of the Indian languages has enabled him to rectify our orthography, in regard to the names of countries, cities, mountains, and rivers. The first European travelers who visited India were, for the most part, merchants, soldiers, or sailors; very few of whom were men of learning, or had enjoyed the advantage of a liberal education. These people wrote down the names of places merely as they struck their ear, and for that reason different names have been given to the same place in books of travels, maps, and military journals. To this may be added, that the authors were sometimes Dutch, sometimes French, and sometimes English; consequently each followed a different orthography, which has rendered the confusion still greater. The author of the present work thought it of importance to correct these errors—a task for which he seems to have been well qualified by his knowledge of the Indian dialects.

Thus, for example, he changes the common, but improper, appellation Coromandel into *Ciòlamandala*, Pondicherry into *Puduceri*, &c.; but the reader ought to remember, that, as the author wrote in Italian, his *c* before *e* and *i* must be pronounced *tch*, &c.

“As the changed orthography of the names of countries, cities, and rivers, rendered a geographical index in some measure necessary, one has been added at the end of the work.—Readers acquainted with the tedious labour required to form such a nomenclature, and who may have occasion to use it, will, no doubt, thank the translator for his trouble.” P. vii.

This subject, were it of importance, might merit some discussion; but we shall only observe, that the confusion arising from sudden alterations would be more injurious, than any advantage to be obtained from greater accuracy, to an European at least, would compensate. The names are now established, and should be continued.

As Fra Paolino passed a great part of the period spent in India on the coast of Malabar, so we find his account of this coast much more accurate than his description of that of Coromandel: indeed the Malabar coast has, in general, claimed less attention from travellers; and we are therefore under greater obligations to the present author.

Fra Paolino commences his narrative at Pondicherry: he describes this city, as well as Madras, and some of the neighbouring districts. The etymological catalogue of places may be useful to future inquirers; and the third chapter, entitled ‘Geographical, statistical, and historical observations on the kingdoms of Tanjaur, Marava, Madura, and Carnada,’ is very interesting. Yet the remarks, which might particularly demand our attention, as new or peculiarly accurate, are so much interspersed with matter better known, and less impressive, that we shall not attempt to separate the grain from the tares. In general the good father’s political and commercial remarks are weak and unsatisfactory; but the liberality of mind which is constantly displayed gives the most favourable view of his humanity and worth.

The account of the Malabar coast is, we have said, peculiarly valuable, because the author relates what he saw, and deserves the praise of fidelity. We shall add a description of the political system of the coast, now greatly reversed by the overthrow of Tippoo’s power.

“As this country, besides being intersected by so many rivers, is surrounded also by the sea and by mountains, not only is its interior trade much promoted, because merchandise can be transported in boats and other vessels from the most remote districts to all the towns and places of trade on the sea-coast, but it is almost impregnable, because the marching of troops would be rendered extremely difficult, and be much retarded by having so many streams to cross;

because cavalry could scarcely any where act in a land so intersected, and because a hostile army, if its commander were not perfectly acquainted with the nature of the interior parts, would every moment have to apprehend an attack from the inhabitants. These are the true reasons why this country has never yet been subjected to a foreign power. The Greeks, Tartars, Moguls, and Arabs, who penetrated hither, were merely merchants; and the original Malabar sovereigns still retain peaceful possession of this kingdom, which they have enjoyed for three thousand years. Tippoo Sultaun once attempted to subdue it; but his troops were beat, and again driven from the country. It is here, therefore, that the original manners, customs, laws, arts and sciences of the Indians must be studied; for if not quite free from mixture, they have at any rate been preserved much purer than in any other of the provinces or countries of India. Besides, it is highly worthy of notice on account of the trade which it formerly carried on with the Egyptians, the Greeks, the Romans, the Persians, and the Armenians, and of its giving birth to the Christians of St. Thomas, who existed here in the earliest ages of the church. In the last place, it deserves to be better known, because the Portuguese carried on a war for a long time with one of the kings of Calicut, named Samuri, who makes a shining figure in the history of Persia, and because several Christian congregations were founded here by St. Francis Xavier.

‘The climate of Malabar is healthful, warm, and somewhat moist, except during the hot months of April and May, a little before the commencement of the rainy season, which begins on the 15th of June; and ends about the 20th of August. In the two former months the atmosphere is so much rarefied by the violent heat, that the inhabitants would be in danger of perishing, were there not such a number of rivers in the country, and if, at the periods when the heat has attained to its highest degree, a fresh breeze did not blow from the ocean, by which the air is purified and cooled—a daily proof that Providence has dispensed to all countries and all nations of the earth a certain measure of inconveniences and enjoyments.’ p. 104.

The different tribes who inhabit this part of India are next enumerated; and we shall select Mr. Forster’s note on the passage which relates to the Mahometan Arabs. These Fra Paolino confounds with the Afghans. The note is a learned and curious one, but not completely satisfactory: the Afghans are probably Arabs, and perhaps of a Jewish race.

‘The Mahometan Arabs, who, under the caliph Valid, established themselves on the coast of Malabar, and in the northern part of India, are at present commonly called Moors. The Patans, or, as they are otherwise called, Afgans or Afguans, have nothing in common with these Arabs but their religion. They are a branch of the Albanians from Mount Caucasus, as has been already remarked by Goerber and Dr. Reineggs, or Ehlich. The Armenians cannot pronounce the letter *L* in the middle of a word, and therefore they call the Albans or Alwans *Aghwans*. These aborigines of the Caucasian territories were known to the ancient writers, Strabo, Pliny, Am-

mianus Marcellinus, and Dio Cassius. According to the last-mentioned author they extended themselves from the Tanais (Don) to the Ganges. These people, who had thus wandered as far as India, were subdued by the Saracens, and converted to the Mahometan religion by the sword, but they afterwards recovered their independence. Some of these Patan chiefs founded, in the neighbourhood of Delhi, small principalities; others penetrated into the Decan, and made themselves masters of small provinces, which have been since taken from them by Nizam Aly, the Marattas, and Tippoo Saib. Even the Robillas are a race descended from the Patans.' P. 106.

The particular account of the white and black Jews of India, in the note by M. Adrian Moens, from Busching's Magazine, is very interesting, and probably authentic. It is too long for transcription.

A particular description of the different parts of the Malabar coast follows, but admits not of analysis. The account of the Arab boatmen, who frequent Cochin, is drawn with a bold and original pencil. It deserves to be more generally known.

Many of the Arabian ships make two voyages hither in the course of the year. The first time they arrive in September, and depart in October and November; the second time, they arrive in February, and return in April and May. The Arabs, who conduct these vessels, have a most horrid appearance. They are strongly built; wear their beards long; have nothing on their bodies but a shirt and a pair of wide trowsers made of white cotton cloth; are of a dark-brown complexion, and pay very little attention to cleanliness. They are active; never go but in companies, and well armed; sleep under tents, or a piece of cloth extended on poles; cook their victuals in the open streets; work at night by the light of the moon; have a great fondness for areca, or palm wine; are extremely faithful to each other while they are getting their goods on board, and unite to avenge themselves in common when any of them is injured. What a difference there is among nations! The Indians, for example, are agile, nimble, and weak, but civil and polite; they act only after mature deliberation; are fond of temperance, and lead an honest and harmless life. The Arabs, on the other hand, are forward, rustic, robust, and faithful; but pay very little attention to decency, or the dictates of reason. The latter devour without any scruple their *pillow*, a dish which consists of boiled rice, with a fowl or piece of kid's flesh; but the former eat only rice, herbs, or roots, and consider it as a great crime to kill an animal. If an Indian is attacked by the small-pox, a disease which in that country occasions great devastation, all the neighbours employ every possible precaution to prevent themselves from being infected. In like cases, however, the Arabs spread out mats in the open streets; place on them the infected persons; give them palm-wine, which, as they pretend, will expel the poison; and before the pustules are ripe, or begin to dry, strew them over with ashes, under a firm conviction that the poison will by these means be dried up and dispersed. The Indians are always accustomed to perform their ablutions before and after meals, and to repair

to their temples when they pray to their gods, or present offerings to them. The Arabs always kneel down in the evening in the open street; keep their eyes fixed on the moon; incline their bodies before it times without number, and repeat their prayers publicly and aloud. A like contrast is observed in the same manners and customs of the other tribes who inhabit the coast of Malabar; and for that reason they are all tolerated by the government, which punishes only those who attempt to interrupt their neighbours in their public worship or private devotions.' P. 131.

The description of the natives of Malabar is also highly interesting.

'The complexion of the natives of Malabar is brown, but much brighter than that of the Tamulians, who inhabit the coast of Ciölamandala. The *mucoas*, or fishermen, the *paravas*, or people who manufacture and dye the cotton articles with which they carry on trade, and all those who reside on the sea-coast, are totally black; because, by the nature of their employments, they are always exposed to the heat of the sun, and to the sea air. The nobler casts, and other families who live in palm-gardens and enclosures, are much fairer, because they spend the greater part of their time under the shade of trees, and are surrounded by a milder atmosphere, which moderates the heat of the sun. I have seen Brahman women, both married and unmarried, who were uncommonly beautiful. The most of the female Indians have fine long hair, black eyes, extended ears, which are pierced, and straight delicate persons. They are accustomed to wash themselves twice a day, to anoint their bodies every week with cocoa-nut oil, or the white of an egg, and to rub their skin with a plant called *incia*, the rind of which has the property of removing all filth. This ablution and friction strengthen the body, and at the same time prevent too violent perspiration. Till their thirtieth year they are stout and vigorous; but after that period they alter much faster than the women in any of the nations of Europe. Early marriage, labour, and diseases, exhaust their constitutions before the regular time of decay. They are lively, active, and tractable; possess great acuteness; are fond of conversation; employ florid expressions, and a phraseology abundant in images; never carry any thing into effect till after mature deliberation; are inquisitive and prying, yet modest in discourse; have a fickle inconstant disposition; make promises with great readiness, yet seldom perform them; are importunate in their requests, but ungrateful when they have obtained their end; behave in a cringing obsequious manner when they fear any one, but are haughty and insolent when they gain the superiority; and assume an air of calmness and composure when they can acquire no satisfaction for an injury, but are malicious and irreconcilable when they find an opportunity of being revenged. I was acquainted with many families who had ruined themselves by law-suits, because they preferred the gratification of revenge to every consideration of prudence. The men, both of the higher and lower classes, bind a piece of cotton cloth round their loins, and for the most part leave the remainder of the body uncovered. The

women of the inferior casts go about almost in the same manner. The wives and daughters of the Brahmans, on the other hand, conceal the upper part of the body with a piece of fine cotton cloth, the extremity of which is thrown over the shoulder. They go barefooted; but wear a great many ornaments, which generally consist of three or four bracelets of brass, a necklace of gold or precious stones, and ear-rings of gold or of diamonds. They bind their hair together in a roll on the top of the head, and paint on the forehead some sacred mark. They bear in their hand an umbrella of palm-leaves, which they always hold before their face when they meet any of the male sex. They, however, turn speedily round, in general, when a man has passed them, and seem to cast a wistful look towards him. This is a plain proof that in every country of the globe the daughters of Eve are subject to the like weaknesses.' P. 153.

The political state of this coast, and the missionary affairs, are of less importance. The account of the quadrupeds, birds, and other living productions of this part of the peninsula, offers nothing so particularly new as to induce us to dwell on it. We perceive in every part the most discriminating marks of faithful observation and accurate description.

The second book contains the more miscellaneous remarks, relating to the manners and customs of the Hindûs; viz. the birth and education of children, the state of marriage, the laws, classes or families of the Indians; their administration of justice, language, religion and deities, hieroglyphical marks of distinction, division of time, festivals, and calendar; the music, poetry, architecture, and other arts and sciences of the Indians, as well as of their medicine and botany. In our author's return, he visits the Island of Ceylon, the Isles of France and Bourbon, now Réunion.

The descriptions of Indian manners and arts have lately been so numerous, that we need neither offer analysis nor extract from this part of the work. We mean not to say that the chapters are uninteresting, for they are faithful and animated pictures: they are not uninteresting, for the descriptions of few real observers are so. They can, however, be examined with advantage only in the work itself.

On our author's return, we have said, he visited Ceylon. We shall therefore prefer giving some account of this island, now so nearly connected with the British dominions. We prefer it also, since our author met in Ceylon with persons who understood the Malabar and Tamulic languages, and of course was able to avoid many errors of former travelers.

'As the wind, from whatever quarter it comes, has free room to play around this island, the air is always pure and salubrious. This advantage, and the great richness of the country, gave rise formerly to the fable, that it was the place of Paradise, and that the inhabitants lived to the age of two hundred or three hundred years. The Indians have a tradition, that this island, in consequence of a dispute between

the serpent Vasughi and the god of the wind, was broken loose from the mountain Meru, the habitation of the gods, and hurled into the eastern sea, where it now lies. The pagans believe, therefore, that this island is a part of paradise; and this fable indeed, in ancient times, was conveyed from India to other parts of Asia. Another fable, which forms the subject of the poem called *Ramayana*, and which relates to this island also, has been mentioned before.

Not far from the city of Candia, where the king of Ceylon generally resides, is a river which flows down from one of the mountains. In the middle of this river the king has built a small palace, where he sometimes enjoys the cool air, and where are preserved the valuable gems which the rain and streams wash down from the mountains. Pearls are found in the district of Mannar, at the western extremity of the island. This country produces the most beautiful elephants in all Asia, together with a great many deer, wild swine, and different kinds of red and yellow birds not known in Europe. It yields two crops every year, the produce of which is sufficient to feed all its inhabitants; but when the Dutch are at war with the king of Candia, they are obliged to procure their rice from Cochin, on the coast of Malabar. They might raise coffee and pepper in Ceylon; but they cultivate neither of these articles, lest the price of the Malabar pepper and the Batavian coffee should be lowered, and attend merely to the culture of cinnamon, the sale of which is more profitable. They possess all the places on the sea-coast, and Colombo is their capital. Jafnapatnam, Negombo, Punta di Galle, Trinquemala, and other settlements, are dependencies on its government.' P. 427.

The principal deity, however, worshipped in this island, is Budha, or Godama, a son of Maia and Mercury, or Hermes, to whom they have dedicated not only a great number of trees, but also Adam's Peak, called in the Sanscrit language Salmala, which is the highest mountain in the island, and from which Budha is said to have ascended to heaven after he had transformed himself into nine hundred and ninety-nine different shapes. The worship of this deity was introduced into Ceylon about forty years after the birth of Christ; and about the same time a violent dispute took place between the Brahmans and the Budhists, the result of which was, that the latter, because they would not acknowledge Vishnu and Shiva as gods, were expelled from India by their opponents. The Budhists were originally pagan monks of the sect of Sanyasi, who led a life of contemplation, renounced all property, took an oath of chastity and poverty, and lived together in common. They are descended from the ancient Samanæi, who are exceedingly well characterised in the writings of Strabo, Porphyrius, Arrian, and Clemens of Alexandria. They never marry, and support themselves by begging. By these Budhists the religion of the Indians was transplanted to Pegu, Siam, and China, as the Peguans and the Chinese themselves acknowledge. In Pegu, Budha is worshipped in the same manner as in Ceylon; and the Talapoins, his priests, are real descendants from the Budhists of Ceylon. The inhabitants of Pegu call Budha sometimes Gaudama, and sometimes Samonacodam. *Soma* signifies the moon, and *codam* a god. By this appellation, therefore, they give to understand that

they consider Budha as a deity created by the moon; for the nymph Rohini was the favorite of the lunar god, and from these two Budha derived his existence.' P. 432.

The remarks on volcanoes, near the conclusion, are crude and unsatisfactory; they are entitled to neither an analysis nor a confutation.

ART. IX.—*Memoirs of the late Mrs. Robinson, written by herself. With some posthumous Pieces. 4 Vols. Crown 8vo. 1l. 1s. Boards. Phillips. 1801.*

THE lot of beauty is often unfortunate: that of Mrs. Robinson was peculiarly so. Married at an early age, before she knew what love was, and to a man who, according to her representation, she could not esteem, it is not surprising that she quitted the paths of distress to enjoy those of affluence, without reflecting on the price she would have to pay. Her lot will, however, afford a terrific warning to those who may be inclined to follow it. Palsied at an early age, distressed, neglected, almost forgotten, except when flattered by the efforts of poetry or the exaggerations of fiction, many years passed cheerlessly along. The gaiety of luxury alternated with the pangs of regret, perhaps of a conscience ill at ease.

The earlier part of the narrative is written by herself, with candour and propriety. We can scarcely expect any thing but a varnished tale—an 'apology' for a life. It says little more than that her juvenile years were unfortunate, from the misconduct of her father and the mistaken judgement of her mother, who urged her marriage with Mr. Robinson, himself the natural son of a man who treated her with severity. Distress drove her to the stage, and this public exhibition to her *first* connexion, when she was the Perdita of *Florizel*. Here the story breaks off. We are old enough to remember this period, and to be able to add to the tale; but what she herself, or her continuator, chooses to conceal, we shall not enlarge on. She had many virtues and many faults. May the latter be written on water, and effaced by the passing breeze!

Of Mrs. Robinson's character, as an author, we have had frequent occasion to speak. If we may trust what she says herself, and what is affirmed in the continuation, respecting her opinions, we can easily believe that these did not at last greatly differ from our own. The false glitter of extravagant metaphors, and of splendid epithets, in her earlier effusions, disgusted us: sober good sense by degrees corrected the faults, and her later productions were more valuable. Many of these

will entertain, when the childish tinsel of Laura Maria is forgotten.

Mrs. Robinson's own narrative scarcely extends beyond the middle of the second volume; but the scanty outline we have already stated. We shall select one of the most interesting periods of her life.

' The play of *The Winter's Tale* was this season commanded by their majesties. I never had performed before the royal family, and the first character in which I was destined to appear was that of Perdita. I had frequently played the part, both with the *Hermione* of Mrs. Hartley and of Miss Farren; but I felt a strange degree of alarm when I found my name announced to perform it before the royal family.

' In the green-room I was rallied on the occasion; and Mr. Smith, whose gentlemanly manners and enlightened conversation rendered him an ornament to the profession, who performed the part of *Leontes*, laughingly exclaimed, "By Jove, Mrs. Robinson, you will make a conquest of the prince; for to-night you look handsomer than ever!" I smiled at the unmerited compliment, and little foresaw the vast variety of events that would arise from that night's exhibition.

' As I stood in the wing opposite the prince's box, waiting to go on the stage, Mr. Ford, the manager's son, and now a respectable defender of the laws, presented a friend who accompanied him; this friend was lord viscount Malden, now earl of Essex.

' We entered into conversation during a few minutes, the prince of Wales all the time observing us, and frequently speaking to colonel (now general) Lake, and to the honourable Mr. Legge, brother to lord Lewisham, who was in waiting on his royal highness. I hurried through the first scene, not without much embarrassment, owing to the fixed attention with which the prince of Wales honoured me. Indeed, some flattering remarks which were made by his royal highness met my ear as I stood near his box, and I was overwhelmed with confusion.

' The prince's particular attention was observed by every one, and I was again rallied at the end of the play. On the last curtsy the royal family condescendingly returned a bow to the performers; but, just as the curtain was falling, my eyes met those of the prince of Wales, and, with a look that I never shall forget, he gently inclined his head a second time; I felt the compliment, and blushed my gratitude.

' During the entertainment lord Malden never ceased conversing with me: he was young, pleasing, and perfectly accomplished. He remarked the particular applause which the prince had bestowed on my performance—said a thousand civil things—and detained me in conversation till the evening's performance was concluded.

' I was now going to my chair, which waited, when I met the royal family crossing the stage. I was again honoured with a very marked and low bow from the prince of Wales.—On my return home I had a party to supper, and the whole conversation centred in en-

comiums on the person, graces, and amiable manners of the illustrious heir apparent.

‘ Within two or three days of this time lord Malden made me a morning visit: Mr. Robinson was not at home, and I received him rather awkwardly. But his lordship’s embarrassment far exceeded mine: he attempted to speak—paused, hesitated, apologised; I knew not why. He hoped I would pardon him; that I would not mention something he had to communicate; that I would consider the peculiar delicacy of his situation, and then act as I thought proper. I could not comprehend his meaning, and therefore requested that he would be explicit.

‘ After some moments of evident rumination he tremblingly drew a small letter from his pocket. I took it, and knew not what to say. It was addressed to Perdita. I smiled, I believe rather sarcastically, and opened the *billet*. It contained only a few words, but those expressive of more than common civility;—they were signed, FLORIZEL.

“ Well, my lord, and what does this mean?” said I, half angry.

“ Can you not guess the writer?” said lord Malden.

“ Perhaps yourself, my lord,” cried I, gravely.

“ Upon my honour, no,” said the viscount. “ I should not have dared so to address you on so short an acquaintance.”

‘ I pressed him to tell me from whom the letter came.—He again hesitated; he seemed confused, and sorry that he had undertaken to deliver it.—“ I hope that I shall not forfeit your good opinion,” said he; “ but ”——

“ But what, my lord?”

“ I could not refuse—for the letter is from the prince of Wales.”

‘ I was astonished; I confess that I was agitated; but I was also somewhat sceptical as to the truth of lord Malden’s assertion. I returned a formal and a doubtful answer; and his lordship shortly after took his leave.

‘ A thousand times did I read this short but expressive letter; still I did not implicitly believe that it was written by the prince; I rather considered it as an experiment made by lord Malden, either on my vanity or propriety of conduct. On the next evening the viscount repeated his visit: we had a card-party of six or seven, and the prince of Wales was again the subject of unbounded panegyric. Lord Malden spoke of his royal highness’s manners as the most polished and fascinating; of his temper, as the most engaging; and of his mind, the most replete with every amiable sentiment. I heard these praises, and my heart beat with conscious pride, while memory turned to the partial but delicately respectful letter which I had received on the preceding morning.’ Vol. ii, p. 36.

‘ During many months of confidential correspondence, I always offered his royal highness the best advice in my power; I disclaimed every sordid and interested thought; I recommended to him to be patient till he should become his own master; to wait till he knew more of my mind and manners before he engaged in a public attachment to me; and, above all, to do nothing that might incur the dis-

pleasure of his royal highness's family. I intreated him to recollect that he was young, and led on by the impetuosity of passion; that should I consent to quit my profession and my husband, I should be thrown entirely on his mercy. I strongly pictured the temptations to which beauty would expose him; the many arts that would be practised to undermine me in his affections; the public abuse which calumny and envy would heap upon me; and the misery I should suffer, if, after I had given him every proof of confidence, he should change in his sentiments towards me. To all this I received repeated assurances of inviolable affection; and I most firmly believe that his royal highness meant what he professed: indeed, his soul was too ingenuous, his mind too liberal, and his heart too susceptible to deceive premeditatedly, or to harbour, even for a moment, the idea of a deliberate deception.

At every interview with lord Malden I perceived that he regretted the task he had undertaken; but he assured me that the prince was almost frantic whenever he suggested a wish to decline interfering. Once I remember his lordship's telling me, that the late duke of Cumberland had made him a visit early in the morning, at his house in Clarges-street, informing him that the prince was most wretched on my account, and imploring him to continue his services only a short time longer. The prince's establishment was then in agitation: at this period his royal highness still resided in Buckingham-house.

A proposal was now made that I should meet his royal highness at his apartments, in the disguise of male attire. I was accustomed to perform in that dress, and the prince had seen me (I believe) in the character of the 'Irish Widow.' To this plan I decidedly objected. The indelicacy of such a step, as well as the danger of detection, made me shrink from the proposal. My refusal threw his royal highness into the most distressing agitation, as was expressed by the letter which I received on the following morning. Lord Malden again lamented that he had engaged himself in the intercourse, and declared that he had himself conceived so violent a passion for me that he was the most miserable and unfortunate of mortals. Vol. ii. p. 47.

This attachment, from the continuation, for the author's own narrative concludes at this period, seems not to be of long duration, and the rest of the story is short and unsatisfactory. Much is left to conjecture: much might be filled from the scandalous chronicle of the times. We shall select the contrast to the scene of gaiety and triumph just transcribed.

In 1799, her increasing involvements and declining health pressed heavily upon her mind: she had voluntarily relinquished those comforts and elegancies to which she had been accustomed; she had retrenched even her necessary expences, and nearly secluded herself from society. Her physician had declared, that by exercise only could her existence be prolonged; yet the narrowness of her circumstances obliged her to forego the only means by which it could be obtained. Thus, a prisoner in her own house, she was deprived of

every solace but that which could be obtained by the activity of her mind, which at length sunk under excessive exertion and inquietude.

Indisposition had for nearly five weeks confined her to her bed, when, after a night of extreme suffering and peril, through which her physician hourly expected her dissolution, she had sunk into a gentle and balmy sleep. At this instant her chamber door was forcibly pushed open, with a noise that shook her enfeebled frame nearly to annihilation, by two strange and ruffian-looking men, who entered with barbarous abruptness. On her faintly inquiring the occasion of this outrage, she was informed that one of her unwelcome visitors was an attorney, and the other his client, who had thus, with as little decency as humanity, forced themselves into the chamber of an almost expiring woman. The motive of this intrusion was to demand her appearance, as a witness, in a suit pending against her brother, in which these men were parties concerned. No intreaties could prevail on them to quit the chamber, where they both remained, questioning, in a manner the most unfeeling and insulting, the unfortunate victim of their audacity and persecution. One of them, the client, with a barbarous and unmanly sneer, turning to his confederate, asked—‘Who, to see the lady they were now speaking to, could believe that she had once been called the *beautiful* Mrs. Robinson?’ To this he added other observations not less savage and brutal, and, after throwing on the bed a subpoena, quitted the room. The wretch who could thus, by insulting the sick, and violating every law of humanity and common decency, disgrace the figure of a man, was a professor and a priest of that religion which enjoins us—‘not to break the bruised reed,’ and to bind up the broken in heart! His name shall be suppressed, through respect to the order of which he is an unworthy member. The consequences of this brutality upon the poor invalid were violent convulsions, which had nearly extinguished the struggling spark of life.

By slow degrees, her malady yielded to the cares and skill of her medical attendants, and she was once more restored to temporary convalescence; but from that time her strength gradually decayed. Though her frame was shaken to its centre, her circumstances compelled her still to exert the faculties of her mind. The sportive exercises of fancy were now converted into toilsome labours of the brain,—nights of sleepless anxiety were succeeded by days of vexation and dread.’ Vol. ii. p. 144.

The third volume contains some numbers of a periodical paper, which appeared, we believe, in *The Morning Post*, entitled *The Sylphid*, a fragment of a novel denominated *Jasper*, and a poem entitled *The Savage of Aveyron*, a description of a wild boy found in a forest of that name in France. The papers published under the name of *The Sylphid* are light and pleasing, and must have formed an agreeable contrast with the trifling insipid wit of a morning paper. *Jasper* was a child of promise, and we greatly regret that Mrs. Robinson never lived to finish it. The poem is a performance of no great value.

The fourth volume contains a poem, in two books, of some

merit, with many faults: it is in blank verse, and entitled *The Progress of Liberty*. Much of the false glitter and misapplied imagery, the *Cleopatra* for which Mrs. Robinson lost what she might, from her talents, have otherwise gained of the world, abound in it. Our readers will find many of the faults and beauties of the whole in the following lines.

‘ On the plain
 The mangled carcase black’ned; rivers bore
 Their murder’d victims down the blushing wave
 Of black oblivion. O’er the flinty way
 The mutilated limb and streaming heart
 Met the full eye of Pity. Beauty’s breast,
 Polluted by the touch of sensual rage,
 Quiver’d beneath the fell assassin’s sword;—
 While outrag’d Nature stamp’d the hellish deed
 On Retribution’s tablet. Ev’ry street
 Presented the wide scaffold, crimson-stain’d,
 And menacing destruction. Palaces
 Were now the haunts of ruthless revelers,
 Of vices abject, dark conspiracies—
 While uncurb’d rapine, and blaspheming rage,
 Rov’d with licentious phrensy. Sacred shrines,
 And temples consecrate, were public marts
 Of profligate debasement. Not the wise,
 The virtuous, or the brave, then held the scale
 Of even Justice: Freedom’s sons inspir’d,
 In vain rear’d high their banners ’mid the scene
 Of madd’ning slaughter. For a time their zeal
 Was mock’d, with barb’rous rage; their great design
 By phrensy violated, or constrain’d
 By spells infernal. Then, O Liberty!
 Thy frantic mien, and heaven-imploring eye,
 Turn’d from the dreadful throng to trace new paths,
 And seek, in distant climes, new scenes of woe.
 ‘ Mid the dread altitudes of dazzling snow,
 O’er-topping the huge imag’ry of Nature,
 Where one eternal winter seem’d to reign,
 An hermit’s threshold, carpeted with moss,
 Diversified the scene. Above the flakes
 Of silv’ry snow full many a modest flow’r
 Peep’d through its icy veil, and blushing op’d
 Its variegated hues—the orchis sweet,
 The bloomy cistus, and the fragrant branch
 Of glossy myrtle. In the rushy cell
 The lonely anchoret consum’d his days,
 Unblessing and unblest’d. In early youth,
 Cross’d in the fond affections of his soul
 (For in his soul the purest passions liv’d)
 By false ambition, from his parent home
 He, solitary, wander’d; while the maid,

Whose peerless beauty won his yielding heart,
 Condemn'd by lordly, needy persecution,
 Pin'd in monastic horrors!' P. 38.

These hemistichs, the refuge of indolence, are not uncommon in the poem; and though they sometimes vary the pause, or give effect to an abrupt termination of the thought, both which advantages may always be obtained without them by the exercise of skill and taste, in general they leave disgust, as they imply an unfinished form.

The tributary lines to Mrs. Robinson, from the various poets of her æra, are those complimentary trifles which give pleasure at the moment, and scarcely deserve to live longer. Some little posthumous pieces of fancy, by herself, are interspersed.

On the whole, these volumes are entertaining. We may indeed wish to know more, but are gratified with the information we have received, and should be thankful for it. Those who have seen and known Mrs. Robinson will peruse these Memoirs with pleasure: those who have only heard of her will not be uninterested in the few events thus recorded of her life.

ART. X.—*Nuptia Sacra; or an Inquiry into the Scriptural Doctrine of Marriage and Divorce. Addressed to the two Houses of Parliament.* 8vo. 2s. 6d. sewed. Wright. 1801.

DURING the late discussions in the house of lords on the subject of bills of divorce, appeals were advanced with great propriety to the authority of the Scriptures; but opposite opinions, in the course of their interpretation, were maintained with great strength of argument. On the one hand, too much stress appears to have been laid on the Mosaic law; while, on the other, a more fatal error was evinced still—the supposition, we mean, that Christ gave a positive law of his own on this subject, independently of that advanced by the Jewish legislator. The question, thus entangled, embarrasses many very worthy people; yet, if they would give themselves the trouble of reading the appropriate passages in the Mosaic law, and the correspondent texts in the New Testament, attentively, there is scarcely any law in the whole course of theology more clear or definite. The Mosaic law tolerated divorce; but it was restrained by certain forms: our Saviour restores matrimony to all its rights, and does not allow of the concession made by Moses to the situation of the times in which the Hebrew legislator lived. The bond of matrimony cannot be broken but by adultery. If any one putteth away his wife, except for adultery, he is guilty of a breach of it: if any man marrieth a woman so put away, he committeth adultery, because the bond is

only dissolved with respect to the innocent party. Our Saviour is silent upon the subject of the Mosaic punishment for adultery. The question merely regards persons sent away without that cause, which he determines to be the only cause that can break the bond of matrimony; and hence it is evident that no inference can be drawn from his words in prejudice of the future marriage of the adulterer and adulteress with each other, or with any other person.

This is the main point in the argument, most ably stated and ably maintained in the work before us. It gives the *rationale* of the law of Moses, the modification by our Saviour, the interpretation of passages of Scripture, and references to the best authorities in the church, the history of the question of adultery and divorce from the earliest ecclesiastical ages, and a suggestion on the punishment of the adulterer and adulteress. But we will transcribe the author's own summary of his argument, of which the following is the general result.

' Against the noble earl, it has been proved, that the intermarriage of the adulteress with her seducer is not commanded by heaven. Nor was this a difficult task. He could be no formidable antagonist, whose whole artillery, in this Scriptural field, was a single text of Deuteronomy, hastily seized, and wrongly applied. Accordingly, I have paid him but a cursory attention, and have contented myself with giving that general statement of the Mosaic law which was necessary to the completeness of my plan. Against the learned prelate it has been equally proved, (unless I flatter myself) that, by the divine law, the divorced woman has not forfeited her general power of re-marriage. But to accomplish this was not so easy; for, though his opinion was pronounced in a very summary manner, yet his professional importance and his Biblical reputation, which is high among us, threw upon me the necessity of an inquiry more extensive and more critical; and I was obliged to proceed with good circumspection, and an appeal to the authority of greater names, ere I could prove his position to be erroneous, and its consequences fatal to the liberty of the reformed church.

' To this has been added, for the conviction of those who would suppress every attempt to legislate on this point, the general history of the punishment of adultery among us. The revival of the spirit of the ancient penalties has been urged against the seducer, and, instead of the dreaded prohibition of his intermarriage with the adulteress, that punishment of her has been recommended, which, while it may keep at a distance the enemies of her virtue, will, perhaps, impress a salutary caution on her own mind—the loss of her fortune, and official inspection of her moral conduct.' P. 131.

The opinion of the bishop of Rochester is not without advocates out of the church; but the little support it met with from any of his brethren, and its direct opposition by a prelate distinguished for his knowledge of sacred literature, ought to restrain the impetuosity of those who seize at once on a text,

and make it subservient to their own purpose. Our author meets the opinion with arguments drawn equally from reason and Scripture, and which appear to us irresistible.

‘ I have endeavoured to prove that your interpretation offends against right reason, because it supposes a perpetual adultery against a husband no longer existing. I conceive it to be equally repugnant to the rules of sound criticism. You destroy the essential relation of the propositions ; you read the first with a restriction ; you understand the last with none ; and thus, instead of filling up the chasm with a continuity of sense, give rise to two opposite meanings, under the limits of the same declaration : for thus you interpret :— “ Whosoever shall put away his wife, except for fornication, committeth adultery ; and whoso marrieth her that is put away (on account of fornication) committeth adultery.” What is there to warrant this sudden and total change of the sense ? What is there to make us suppose that an opposite meaning was intended to be thus silently brought about ? My lord, this is not usual interpretation ; for a marked exception, once established, will continue its influence, unless it is done away by a subsequent declaration, unless circumstances evidently require the change, or unless a new position of the terms expressed demands a correspondent alteration in that part which the understanding is to supply. Here, as is obvious, the continuance of the exception would make every thing plain and consistent ; yet here you are determined to drop it. And not only so, but you call in an incongruous aid from an opposite quarter ; and what you should be employed in reconciling, you set at variance, by a contrariety of meaning and of consequences. See the grammatical mischief of this. The term “ put away ” occurs twice in this passage. By the common interpretation, it is taken in the same sense in each place, and applied to causes short of fornication. By your’s, it changes its purport in the second clause, and describes a divorce arising from fornication alone.’ P. 57.

If there be no law promulgated by Christ against the marriage of an adulterer or adulteress, it does not by any means follow that they have not both been guilty of a crime for which due punishment should be inflicted. On the sin of adultery no one can doubt a moment ; on the quantum of bodily punishment, if the Jewish severity be, as it should be, exploded, the legislature must determine for itself. The following suggestions deserve attention.

‘ What remains, then, but to renew the penalties in the most effectual manner, and invigorate the arm of the ancient authority ? It is true, you cannot, by an act of the legislature, restore the conscience, but you can punish the person ; you cannot terrify the soul of the adulterer, but you can seize his body : and at least imprisonment, the mildest species of corporal suffering, ought to be put in force against him. In the case of the abduction of a man’s wife, public fine and imprisonment for two years are added to the recovery of private damages ; and both the king and the husband may have

this action. Is the seduction of her so much lighter in guilt, that the crown shall have no plea against it, and barbarity be imputed to those who would guard the marriage vow by a salutary increase of rigour against the invaders of it?' P. 122.

On the side of the female delinquent, difficulties occur which render imprisonment improper. But

' Might not a certain part of her fortune be retained for her decent maintenance, while the rest of it is forfeited? Might not the lord chancellor, or lord chief-justice of the King's Bench, be appointed the official judge of her conduct? If she continued vicious, or drew impure gains from other quarters, might not the portion first awarded to her revert to her family? If there were appearances of contrition and a better behaviour, might not the judge have power to command from the husband a certain discreet addition to the allowance originally made? Here would be a sort of moral inspection, equally discouraging to the progress of viciousness, and promotive of a returning sobriety.' P. 126.

Here, however, the good sense of the writer appears; and the lesson inculcated by him is of the highest importance.

' Meanwhile, there is one maxim on which I must dwell with all earnestness. Whatever correction you apply to the evil, let it be but just sufficient for the purpose required; and, while you seek to repress offence, leave every possible opening to returning virtue. If the punishment goes beyond the necessity, if, in the violence of reform, terror is heaped upon terror against the offenders, (for morals too have their excesses, and virtue sometimes riots) it is easy to see the consequence. Society will grow universally depraved under a law superfluously rigorous. "Offences will come," and the passions will be more destructive in another direction. Terrified at first with thundering statutes, we shall learn to shelter ourselves from them under forced covers of our own invention. Every man, by degrees, will unguard the virtue of his house, hitherto sacred; and through a corrupt agreement, which will soon come to be generally understood, the husband will accommodate his neighbour, and be silently accommodated in return. Sad state of morals, where justice is completely disarmed by private compact, and a dreadful stillness is spread over universal guilt!' P. 128.

We have selected much of this valuable pamphlet; yet from every part of it we could have drawn instructive matter. It is written with a full knowledge of the subject, derived from meditation on the Holy Scriptures, with due conviction of their sacred importance, and evidently from a long acquaintance with the best writers of antiquity and the fathers of the church. The whole of the subject is completely discussed; and every one who, from his station in the legislature, is called upon to decide upon it, will employ his time to great advantage in making this work the basis of his inquiries. To divines also we parti-

cularly recommend it as an excellent model for them in every controversial question. The good sense, the style, the knowledge of the world, the veneration for Scriptural authority, the insight into antiquity, the respect shown to the adversaries of his tenets, and, at the same time, the firmness with which he maintains his own—all these points give us so high an opinion of the writer, of whom we have not the least knowledge even by conjecture, that we felt secret regret on perusing his last words, *reddar tenebris*; and not doubting that he was going to discharge his 'private duties' with equal worth, we indulged the hope, that he might again find reason to start from his obscurity, and be drawn forth by those who alone can properly reward his merits.

ART. XI.—*General View of the Agriculture of the County of Suffolk; drawn up for the Consideration of the Board of Agriculture and internal Improvement. By the Secretary to the Board.* 8vo. 5s. 6d. sewed. Nicol.

IT has been often remarked, that literature constitutes a republic, and that, like Ishmael, it finds the hand of every one who is not a member of it lifted against it. This principle makes literary associations the object of sneer or of opposition. The members, by separating themselves from the general class of mankind, seem to arrogate superiority, by claiming distinction. This is peculiarly obvious in this country, from the Royal Society down to every provincial association which has science or literature for its object; nor can it be expected, therefore, that the Agricultural Society should escape:—its prime-minister, Mr. Young, must consequently be exposed to a double share of obloquy, and be deemed accountable, not only for his own errors, (since no one is without them) but for those of the society, whether really well-founded, or the mere product of calumny or misrepresentation. The society has not, indeed, been free from blame, though laudable in its institution, and, in its general conduct, respectable; and some of its reports, for in their execution they are very unequal, have merited no small share of praise. The report before us may be termed one of the best, for it is the work of the secretary in his own county. Here, at least, his labours have not been impeached; and we are free to confess, that these reflexions are more suggested by other works now under consideration, than by any real or imputed fault of the present volume.

It is justly observed by Mr. Young, that any thing which may, with equal propriety, form a part of another work, is misplaced in an agricultural view of a particular county. This precision of remark must limit our labours; for local detail is little

adapted for our journal. But Mr. Young has not closely adhered to his own rule; and we shall, in some parts, find our fetters less burdensome. But, to be more particular—

The figure of Suffolk is nearly that of a rectangular parallelogram, bounded on the east and west by the German Ocean and the shire of Cambridge, on the north and south by the rivers Ouse and Stour. On the north-east and south-west it is chiefly sandy; in the middle the soil is a strong loam. It is a well-watered district, containing about 800,000 acres.

On the minuter history of the county, the size of farms, the holdings, &c. we need not enlarge, as these subjects offer nothing very interesting. The most striking feature of the present view is what relates to the poor-rates. It is contended, that, by incorporating the hundreds, and entrusting them to a committee of gentlemen, great savings may be made in this respect. This system necessarily includes the plan of houses of industry, a subject that has occasioned much controversy. The remarks of Mr. Howlett are added in the notes, and are in general hostile to the measure of such institutions. The great point left undecided, and indeed a principal one, is whether, in their actual state, they contribute to the preservation of life. We have said that this is left undecided; but we have little hesitation in adding, that they may be constituted in such a manner, as to afford a greater chance of life in a given number than may be afforded in any other situation; nor would the mode of management be difficult or uncommon. In other points we shall allow the author to speak for himself.

‘ They have amended the morals of the lower orders of people; if the proportional few instances of indictments at the quarter-sessions, for actions of inferior criminality, which lead to greater crimes, will prove the fact.

‘ If the general good order and regulation the labouring poor are kept in, throughout the incorporated districts, which good order is evidenced by their general conduct and conversation, and by their observation of those laws, the breach of which may tend to endanger the lives and diminish the safety and comfort of his majesty’s subjects in general—such as drivers riding on their waggons, tippling in ale-houses, and the smaller immoralities and improprieties of conduct; if such attention to the orders of society proves the fact; if the respectful and civil behaviour of the poor to their superiors, the very rare instances of children being reduced to steal wood, turnips, &c. and to the commission of other small thefts; if these, and similar proofs of good morals, unfortunately not prevalent in those districts within the county where these houses are not instituted—if such instances prove the fact, experience tells us these institutions have tended to reform the morals of the poor.

‘ And the prophetic spirit of theory had before-hand informed those who wished to form a judgement on the subject, that the effect could not be otherwise.

‘ A large building, calculated for the reception of the poor of the district, situated in the most healthy situation, with convenient offices of all kinds, the inhabitants of which are under the regulation of well-chosen officers, subject to excellent rules, all of them calculated to promote regularity, industry, morality, and a religious sentiment. The hours of work, refreshment, and sleep, uniform and regular.

‘ The children, from the earliest age, on leaving their mothers’ arms, are under the care of proper dames, who teach them obedience, and give them the habits of attention.

‘ When more advanced in years, schoolmasters teach them to read; and the superintendants of the working-rooms, some industrious employment, and take care that their hours of work shall not be passed in idleness. Here they are generally stinted, so that greater industry is rewarded with greater leisure.

‘ The duties of religion are expected to be regularly attended by the poor of all ages, no excuse being admitted but illness.

‘ It required no prophetic spirit to foretell, that these duties, and this system of regularity, being persevered in, the best effects must of consequence ensue to the morals of the poor of all ages, and to those of the rising generation in particular.

‘ To determine the second question with certainty, recourse must be had to the notices taken respecting the fact, in the different incorporations; and it will be found that in some the poor-rates have been diminished, in others they remain the same as at the time of the institution; and, in a few, the rates have been increased: the different instances shall be pointed out, and some observations made on the facts, as they have been stated.’ P. 232.

The particular facts we cannot transcribe, as they would make our article too extensive. We shall add the conclusion.

‘ It will therefore be found, that not only where the rates have been stationary, but where they have advanced, and in the instance where the debt has increased, the poor-rates have been very much decreased from what they would have been had the poor been managed according to the old and common system; we may therefore, with certainty, apply the old adage, *Non progredi est regredi*, with respect to the expenses of the poor in all the incorporated houses of industry.

‘ On the whole, although, in an instance or two, originating from an improvident mode of building the houses of industry at first, more subsequent expenses have been incurred than were at that time foreseen, and consequently a larger revenue became necessary to pay the interest of the additional sum they were obliged to borrow, and to support the expenses of the house than was at first thought sufficient; and, in another instance, the dishonesty or profusion of the then governor has so dis-arranged the affairs of the house, as to render a new loan, and consequently an increased rate, convenient; yet, on the whole, it is conceived, that not the least shadow of doubt can be raised, but that, even in these instances, the revenues of the houses are increasing beyond the disbursements; the debt is diminishing, and the rates will fall even beneath that low medium they

have hitherto preserved; and which rates, had there been no house of industry, would probably have risen twenty-five, or even fifty per cent. above their present amount.' P. 238.

We have not noticed Mr. Howlett's objections, though we think them strong; because it would be impossible, in our situation, to engage in the controversy. We shall add, however, his concluding remark.

'After a pretty full and minute investigation of the subject of houses of industry, I have not been able to discover any useful tendency in them, but in two respects; first, the general aversion of the poor from entering those houses, as it were, compels them to do their utmost, and even to submit to great hardships, rather than apply for parochial relief; and, secondly, that the business being in some measure collected to a point by means of them, is more easily transacted. I may add, that they may also, in some instances, prevent impositions from counterfeit distress. Though these are advantages, I am doubtful whether they might not be obtained without these institutions; nay, it would be no difficult matter to prove that it certainly might, though perhaps attended with more trouble both to the gentlemen and the farmers.' P. 246.

To these observations we shall subjoin one or two remarks. Few conclusions, deduced *a priori*, are applicable to the situation of the poor. They are in general capricious, always suspicious, selfish, and ungrateful. It is a harsh sentence; but their conduct has deserved it. Their suspicion daily enhances the price of every commodity; for, fearful of having an inferior article, they rush forward, with their weekly stipend, to give more than is asked even by the greedy farmer. When offered at an inferior price by the overseer, what they would otherwise prefer, they reject with scorn; and, in the late instances, when rice and herrings were distributed, instead of money, they would not, where our observations were made, always receive them, though we knew that they had not had, for many months, food so alimentary or grateful. In a house of industry they will always complain, whatever be their treatment; and seldom, in any situation, will they assist their deceased or oppressed neighbours, without some immediate or indirect recompense. In the conclusion, then, we must agree with Mr. Howlett; yet, such are the intrinsic advantages of the houses of industry, that we wish the plans to be continued, to change, if possible, the minds of the poor, by constant conciliation and good treatment. We ought to add, that this article is not written by an overseer, but by one who has stood between the severity of the latter and the distress of the former, and who has been an eye-witness of both.

The arable part of Suffolk is by much the most considerable, though the sheep and the dairies are numerous. Of the usual

crops, wheat, of course, is the most common, and the drill-husbandry most frequent and successfully practised. Rye has yielded to wheat. Beans are often employed to prepare the land for wheat; while they scarcely, if at all, injure its fertility. One gentleman describes very particularly his system of tare-husbandry, or ploughing-in buck-wheat, as manure; a plan which promises to be of singular utility in stiff lands. The Suffolk management of turnips is particularly described, and appears to be judicious and profitable. Hops and hemp are among the least common crops, which nevertheless appear to be more extensively cultivated than in former years. The following observations on the utility of carrots, as a food for horses, deserve attention, though we strongly suspect the advantages to be exaggerated.

‘ Upon reviewing these circumstances, it appears that two loads a week are a very large allowance, probably more than are necessary; seeing that with seventy-two bushels at one place, which is one and three quarters, and one load at another, all the corn is saved; let us therefore decide, that when six horses eat eighty bushels of carrots a week, which is thirteen bushels a week for one horse, they want no corn whatever, and will only eat half the hay of corn-fed ones. This will enable us to ascertain the value tolerably, though not exactly, because we do not know what would be the fair allowance of oats to balance such feeding with carrots. The whole turn of the intelligence ran upon the vast superiority of condition in which horses are kept by carrots, to that which is the result of corn-feeding; for this evident reason, carrots are given nearly, if not quite, in as large quantities as the horses will eat; but oats are never given in such a manner, they are always portioned out in an allowance very far short of such plenty. A quarter and a half of oats would, I am persuaded, from the general turn of every man’s conversation, be inferior to two loads of carrots: this, at 20s. is 1*l.* 10s.; there is to be added the saving of half the hay, which may be called ten pounds per horse a day, or seventy pounds per week, which, at 50s. a ton, is 1*s.* 4*d.* per horse, and 8*s.* for six; which, added to 1*l.* 10s. for corn, makes in all 1*l.* 18s. against eighty bushels, or 19s. a load: and that this is a moderate calculation, appears from the decided preference given by several farmers in favour of carrots at 15s. a load, against oats at 20s. a quarter, not reckoning the carrots by any arbitrary estimation, but supposing themselves forced to buy the one or the other.

The prime cost is calculated at 7s. a load; and that this is fair, will appear by the following articles:

	£.	s.	d.
Rent, tythe, and poor-rates	-	-	0 15 0
Ploughing	-	-	0 7 0
Harrowing, &c.	-	-	0 1 0
Seed, and sowing	-	-	0 6 0
Hoeing	-	-	0 18 0
Taking up ten loads, at 1 <i>s.</i> 2 <i>d.</i>	-	-	0 11 8

'The tenth of which is 5s. 10d. or, per bushel, one penny three farthings; call it, however, 2d. per bushel, or 6s. 8d. per load; and if, to square with one article of intelligence, it is made 7s. it will not amount to two-pence farthing the bushel. Here, therefore, another view opens upon us, which is the farmer's profit: the carrots are worth, in feeding his team, 15s. but they cost him only 7s.; he has therefore the advantage of 8s. a load as the grower, on all his horses consume, and on an average 4l. an acre.' P. 114.

Chicory is our author's favourite child, and of course recommended to succeed or supersede clover.

The management of grass-lands affords little subject of remark, as it is not superlatively excellent. On the subject of wastes and sheep-walks, also, we find little worthy of notice. Many acres of wastes and warrens have lately been reclaimed.

The remarks on draining are judicious, as well as those on paring and burning. This latter practice we would confine exclusively to such land as is described in the following observations, which merit particular attention.

'The application of fire is as useful and effective to land as that of water. There are in Suffolk many thousands of acres of poor, wet, cold, hungry pastures, and neglected meadows, over-run and filled with all sorts of rubbish, and abounding with too few good plants to render their improvement easy without breaking up: all such should be pared and burnt; not to keep under the plough to be exhausted and ruined, which is infallible, and the land left in a worse state, beyond all comparison, than it was before; but to be laid immediately to grass, that is, as soon as the course of husbandry necessary will admit. This ought to be without variation, under any pretence whatever, in this course of crops: 1. pare and burn for turnips, which fed on the land by sheep; 2. oats, and with these oats the grass-seeds sown. The oats and the turnips would more than pay all the expense of a previous hollow-draining, should that be necessary; of the paring and burning, and every other charge: and the change, from a very bad pasture to a very fine one, would all be neat profit. The tenant would be greatly benefited, and the landlord would find his estate improved, if let, as farms ought to be let, with an absolute exclusion of selling a lock of hay under any pretence whatever.

'The dry rough sheep-walks covered with ling, furze, broom, &c. should also be broken up in the same manner; but universally to be laid down again with the grasses suitable to the soil and to sheep. On weak thin stapled land, two crops of corn, after paring and burning, would be pernicious. Perhaps they might be well laid down without a single one, which would be so much the better.' P. 163.

On the subject of manures we find little novelty; and irrigation, we are sorry to observe, is not greatly attended to in Suffolk, though it might be so easily practised.

The breed of cattle is the polled, and the quantity of milk

they afford is considerable. The dairymen do not, as in other counties, always prefer the handsomest cows, but select those which give most milk. The Norfolk and the Suffolk breeds of sheep and horses are preferred.

On the subject of rural economy, we find little to notice. Meat is, we think, on the whole, very cheap. There is but one canal, viz. that from Stow-market to Ipswich, which has greatly reduced the price of coals, and raised the rent of lands. The manufacture is principally the woollen; but the chief employment consists in preparing the materials for the Norfolk workmen.

These are the chief subjects which appear of importance in the present Agricultural View, which is drawn up with great propriety and judgment. The agriculture of Suffolk does not, indeed, afford great variety of remark, or any observations of singular importance. As a part of the whole, however, it claims, and has received, its due share of attention.

ART. XII.—*Letters from Paris, to the Citizens of the United States of America, on the System of Policy hitherto pursued by their Government relative to their Commercial Intercourse with England and France.* By Joel Barlow. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Ridgway. 1800.

THE politics of an American are but little in harmony with those lately adopted in this country; and they who are of so delicate a temper, that they cannot bear opposition, must not take up a work in which the British name is treated with no great degree of ceremony. Like other writers, the author views political happiness through the medium of his country's constitution; and, because a federal government is established in the United States, he naturally considers it as the best constitution in the world, the only one adapted to promote peace and good neighbourhood among nations. The English are as tenacious of their own constitution; and it is well that every person should think *that* the best government under which he lives; for individual happiness depends on many things besides the mere form of national administration; and the history of the world demonstrates that much good may be produced by a monarchical, and much evil may arise from a limited, institution. Let us allow, then, this American to sing the praises of federative government in the loudest strains he is able, nor absurdly close our ears to his remarks, or, like the knight of la Mancha, thrust a lance at him because he also has his Dulcinea. When, however, he brings reproachful railings against us, and terms us 'the most quarrelsome nation in Europe,' we might be allowed,

if we could find a proper arbiter on such an occasion, to repel the charge with some degree of indignation; and though it should appear that we had been continually involved in quarrels, the origin of them might be traced to other causes than those of a national disposition to wrangling.

On the subject of American politics much information may be derived from this pamphlet. The writer reprobates the late conduct of his countrymen with respect to France, and advises measures which seem likely to be adopted by the new administration in that country. The establishment of a navy and the funding system he holds in abhorrence, and his reasons against both are founded on good sense and real knowledge of the interests of the United States. The language employed on the latter topic is strikingly energetic.

‘When I see the American executive advertising to borrow money at eight per cent. what do I see but a youthful, free, and flourishing nation advertising itself for sale! I see an infant Hercules, after having strangled the serpents in his cradle, and risen on his feet with an indication of future force destined to free the world from violence, tie himself for life to the apron-strings of the same Juno who had brought the serpents to devour him. Your physicians have gone to a decrepit, intemperate old man, and borrowed his strong cordials, his bandages, and gouty velvet shoes, to administer them with cruel empyricism to a sturdy plow-boy.’ p. 20.

The naval system meets with no favour from him; and assuredly, in a country where commerce should be an inferior object, it ought not to be held in very high estimation.

‘The most frightful and most incalculable expense, is one which is only yet beginning to begin; it is that terrible scourge of maritime nations, a military navy. I beg you to contemplate for a moment the abyss that your leaders are digging under your feet in the naval system now organising with so much address. You will then listen at your leisure to that swarm of speculators who live upon your losses, and are now clamouring in favour of this system with as much affectation of patriotism, as if your salvation, instead of theirs, depended upon it. I will only observe, that it has been the ruin of every nation that has hitherto adopted it, and that it must be so from its nature. It is the syphon put in suction, which never can stop or moderate its action till all that feeds it is exhausted.’ p. 23.

But how, without a navy, it may be inquired, is commerce to be protected? The following expedient is recommended to the Americans. On an injury being suffered by an American ship, complaint is to be made by its government to the power whose subjects have transgressed; if redress be not allowed, the American government is to confiscate so much of the property of the subjects of the other power as will compensate for the

injury sustained. The justice of this mode of compensation cannot be denied by those who allow of privateering and laying embargoes or confiscating property before war is solemnly denounced; and on this ground the writer defends his position very amply: its prudence, moreover, to those who object to it on this account, may be vindicated on his own principles. For if the American states be considerably in debt to the other injurious power, any revenge taken by that power will be to its own loss, as every blow it strikes will be the cancelling of so much debt, to the injury of its own subjects. This mode is assuredly better than going to war; in which case, for an injury suffered by the subjects of one state, the evil is soon duplicated a thousand fold upon each, and redress of the original injury is lost in oblivion. That the commerce of a state may be carried on without the support of a navy, the author proves, by references to Hamburg, Ragusa, Lubeck, and Bremen.

This idea of compensation leads to a grand federative plan, for the benefit of peaceful commerce. The commercial states who form this federation are to enter into mutual stipulations to protect each other's commerce, in the following manner. They are to define and declare the rights of neutral commerce, and to form a chancery, which is to judge of every injury committed by the subjects of one nation against those of another on the high seas. The chancery is to determine upon the wrong sustained, and the compensation to be made by the nation which has transgressed; and if the latter refuse to stand by such award, she is then to be put under the ban of commerce; that is, her vessels are to be interdicted all approach to the shores of those nations which form the commercial federation. This mode of determining causes is certainly preferable to the old and sanguinary one of bows and arrows, or powder and ball, and may perhaps be reduced to practice in some future age; but centuries of experience are necessary before nations will yet learn to submit, like individuals, to the decision of a jury. Every attempt, however, to make the ideas of justice familiar to states at large, as well as to individuals, is laudable; and the theory of the rights of nations and principles of public maritime law laid down in this work may hereafter be considered as something more than the speculations of the closet. It is evident that the affairs of the world cannot always be conducted on the barbarous mode of using force on every slight occasion; and as the strongest individual in each state is compelled by the stronger arm of the law and of public opinion to pay some regard to the rights of the weakest person in it, the public law of nations may be conducted with similar ease, and the waste of human strength and labour, in the erection of fortified towns and floating castles, will be considered as a poor expedient for

the establishment of social order. There is too much truth in the following description of Europe, during the bloody series of many ages.

‘ It is divided into rival states, that call themselves *independent*; which is another word for the ferocity of savage life, and a licence for organised violence. These states are separated from each other by triple or quadruple ranges of fortified towns, whose inhabitants, from age to age subjected to military law, are shut up at night like cattle, and pursue their labours by day under the shade of the bayonet, within the view of an insolent soldiery, whose ranks are supplied by draining the country of its best young men, and whose pay and provisions are drawn from the hard industry of those who remain behind.

‘ The commerce of these independent nations is so harassed with duties and imposts, in passing through different dominions, that very little of it can be carried on. A barrel of sugar, brought into the middle of Germany, must have paid at least six or eight different taxes. And when the consumer has any produce of his own labour to send abroad, it is loaded with as many more burdens before it can arrive at market.

‘ Such is their condition in their best times, the times of peace; but in the years of war, which are about half the years of every generation of these unhappy men, immense armies are set in motion; whole countries are overspread and exhausted by the marches of successive hordes of friends and enemies, confederates and allies, whose undistinguished voracity excites equal terror among the inhabitants. Sieges, battles, hospitals, prisons, pestilence, and famine, sweep off half the population of each country, and force their princes, at last, to a temporary cessation of butchery, which they call peace. Perhaps the halves of some provinces are severed from one dominion and annexed to another, and this they call conquest. This occasions a new line of frontier, and new ranges of fortifications to be run through an interior country, cutting up the cultivated fields, and forcing the owners, who cannot fly from the devastation, to work at the new trenches and ramparts, to prepare this transfiguration of nature, and be ready for another war.’ P. 71.

ART. XIII.—*An Inquiry into the Laws, ancient and modern, respecting Forestalling, Regrating, and Ingrossing: together with adjudged Cases, Copies of original Records, and Proceedings in Parliament, relative to those Subjects. By William Illingworth. 8vo. 7s. Boards. Brooke. 1800.*

THE usual consequence of every dearth has been an outcry against the growers and venders of those articles which may be deemed the necessaries of life. The consumers labour beneath the evil of the augmented price of provisions, but few of them have either leisure or abilities to determine how far such aug-

mented price depends on the scarcity of the advanced commodities, and how far on the misconduct of the dealers. Every trader is desirous of gaining as much as possible in his peculiar articles of traffic or employment; but it is not every one who can admit that his neighbour ought to be indulged in the same inclination, or consent that every landlord, farmer, miller, baker, should equally consult his own interest: indeed it is not uncommon to find these different traders throwing the blame mutually upon each other. The landlord becomes envious of his tenant; the miller is the object of the obloquy of both parties; and the baker, though rarely enriched by his occupation, is treated with severity by all. His profits are subject to the keenest scrutiny, and he cannot take the common advantages of trade without the interference of the magistrate; hence ascend from all parties cries against forestalling, monopolising, engrossing. Not only corn is engrossed, but farms are engrossed; and even the landlord, whose whole thoughts are bent on engrossing land, and on adding field to field, estate to estate, joins in the general and ridiculous execration: then middlemen, jobbers, and factors, are to be attacked in their turn, as if it were possible that a great metropolis could be supplied with provisions by any other means than by agents, who collect from the growers and distribute to the consumers. History is searched into, and laws are found to have been instituted at different periods with great severity against these agents; and it is asserted, that, notwithstanding there is a total alteration of times and circumstances, the same laws may still be equally beneficial. Formerly the country was divided into small farms, because the knowledge of agriculture was small, taxes and poor-rates were low, and the farmer was a man of small capital. Each of these circumstances is now altered; yet ignorant people will talk of the benefit of small farms, without having the least notion of the number of cares necessary to make farming with a single team in the lowest degree profitable. Formerly the public roads were bad, and there was little communication between one county and another, and even the metropolis could be supplied with the greatest part of its provisions from its own neighbourhood. Destroy at present the middlemen and agents, and London would be reduced to the greatest distress for its subsistence.

An inquiry into ancient laws is, however, highly useful, and, if pursued with candour, and with due reflexion on the changes introduced into commerce by the experience of ages, it may lead to beneficial results. It was this consideration that prevented the legislature from being hurried away by the clamours of the multitude during the late scarcity, and wisely induced it to confine itself to mere reports on the price of provisions. Farther interference might have clogged the wheels of trade with

unnecessary restrictions, and might have augmented the evils of dearth into the horrors of famine: yet there certainly may be sometimes danger of persons being hurried into the contrary extreme, and the freedom of trade may become a pretext for intolerable exactions by great capitalists. There is a mean between the two, between unlimited freedom generating licentiousness, and perpetual harassments of the law, which, nevertheless, will only exercise the ingenuity of the dealer to evade them, and thus load the consumer with additional expense.

That persons may form a clear idea of the regulations made by our ancestors on these points, the author of the work before us has dived into the records of past ages, and presents to us, in the clearest manner, the laws that have been successively enacted from the remotest antiquity. It is evidently a mistake to suppose that all the laws on the subject of forestalling and regrating have been repealed. After pointing out what was formerly deemed forestalling, our author notices what acts of parliament have been repealed, with the reasons of their abrogation, what remain still in force, and what cases have been determined on such existent statutes. The whole inquiry is conducted with equal candour, erudition, and accuracy. The lawyer will here find every thing that may be required from him in his professional character; and the general reader will derive that information in an easy manner which ought, in the present times, to be universally diffused. The writer does not enter at all into the question of the policy of retaining or renewing the laws on forestalling; he is content with the offices of an antiquary and a legal historian, and these he has performed with great credit to himself and utility to the public.

ART. XIV.—*A Tour through the whole Island of Great-Britain; divided into Journeys. Interspersed with useful Observations; particularly calculated for the Use of those who are desirous of travelling over England and Scotland. By the Rev. C. Crutwell. 6 Vols. 8vo. 2l. 8s. Boards. Robinsons. 1801.*

WE were much pleased with this attempt to combine the itineraries of Carey and Kearsley with the more descriptive parts of our different tourists; and, if the first attempt have in some respects failed, the errors will be the best guides for another edition; though we mean not to say that the present is materially faulty.

The chief defect seems to have been copying with too great servility the *general* tourists, without always noticing the modern travelers, who have joined picturesque with antiquarian descriptions, and have particularly attended to later improvements.

Were we to pass over this extensive journey with our author,

we should have to notice some omissions, and, above all, the want of the enlivening spirit to be found in many modern books of travels. The work indeed, it may be alleged, is rather designed to inform than to entertain, written more for the purpose of being occasionally consulted than regularly perused. In this view, particular attention to amusement would be misapplied; yet we own that, in our opinion, both objects might have been attained within the same compass.

The present is an improvement on the itineraries; inasmuch as these only mention the roads, the distances, the inns, and the different seats. The inns might have perhaps been added to the journeys before us, without greatly extending the work; and it would have been proper to have noticed some of the different roads. We have, however, a pretty full account of each city and town, with their ancient history, their modern appearance, trade, &c. In some of these points there are unquestionable errors, but they are not numerous or important. The particular plan we shall detail in the author's own words.

‘ In the present work, though the editor had the former editions of the *Tour through Great-Britain* in his eye, he has not been led implicitly to copy it, nor to follow that plan, if any regular plan was intended to be pursued in that work.

‘ He has, in the present volumes, divided the whole of the kingdom into different journeys, as the roads from London may extend, wishing to note all places of which any thing can be recorded worthy the attention of the traveler or the reader; as much as he could, adding historical information to local description, and preferring plain narrative to beautiful or ornamental language.

‘ In the first volume he has given a short view of the history of England, of Wales, and of Scotland; with a survey of each of the counties, respecting their ancient and their present state, their agriculture, commerce, parliamentary consequence, and population; and this by way of introduction, that the journeys might be less interrupted with observations, in themselves proper, but more applicable to the state of the county at large than the particular town or village in review; this occupies half the first volume.

‘ To London and Westminster, with their additions, the remaining part of the volume is allotted; and yet such are the grandeur, commerce, trade, and buildings, of these united cities, that the history and description of their several parts must be necessarily short.

‘ From London the Itinerary begins on the right bank of the Thames through Kent to Dover, and proceeds from the south and west progressively towards the north and east, till the reader is brought to the left bank of the Thames in the county of Essex.

‘ The journeys through England and Wales, with the islands round the coast of the whole of Great-Britain, occupy the second, third, fourth, and fifth volumes. The sixth and last is appropriated to the roads of Scotland only.’ Vol. i. p. iii.

In the first volume the author has been greatly indebted to the numerous county surveys published under the auspices of the Board of Agriculture, without always, perhaps, discriminating their different merits, which are very unequal. In the journeys we find also that he occasionally copies former tourists, without sufficient examination. In each journey the towns and distances are premised, as in the Itineraries: the description follows, and each volume, as its separate nature requires, has its own index. The traveler need not therefore encumber himself with the whole set in each excursion.

Of a work professedly a compilation, we are scarcely expected to add any specimen. We wish the editor success; and were it possible to combine a short account of the country passed over in each journey, which might be done with a slight addition to the bulk of the work, or to which we would sacrifice a little of the minuteness of antiquarian research, and particularly the copies of inscriptions, the whole would be much more valuable.

Maps of England and Scotland are prefixed, coloured, it would appear at first sight, a little too glaringly, but evidently designed to catch the eye while the carriage runs on with rapidity. In another edition we would recommend maps of the particular counties, which might be easily given, in the manner adopted by Mr. Warner, by the outlines, the direction of the rivers, and the bearings of the principal towns, cut on wood. This would add but little to the expense of the work, even if they were repeated in each volume. We have given these hints, as the Tour is already so useful, being anxious to see it combine entertainment with interest. Above all, in a new edition, we would recommend an attention to our modern travelers, and an abridgement of the ancient history.

ART. XV.—*Sermons preached to a Country Congregation: to which are added a few Hints for Sermons. Intended chiefly for the Use of the younger Clergy. By William Gilpin. Vol. II. 8vo. 14s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1800.*

THE author pursues the same plan which he evinced in his former volume*. Two thirds of the book are devoted to sermons, and the remainder to hints or heads for similar compositions. In both, plainness and simplicity are the points principally studied. This mode of preaching is particularly adapted to a country congregation; yet it may be extended too far, and some topics may be considered as beyond their level

* See our XXVIIIth Vol. New Arr. p. 316.

or standard, which it is the duty of the preacher to attend to with invariable perseverance. Thus the doctrine of the Trinity, which is the subject of one discourse, is rather placed beyond the reach of the hearer than made familiar to him, as in the Athanasian Creed; and he is taught to 'leave all nice inquiries into this subject, and consider it in those practical lights in which alone it ought to be the object of our contemplation.' In another place we are told, that, 'as to the obscurer parts of this doctrine, we may assure ourselves we have nothing to do with them.' Now this mode of treating the subject is attended with considerable danger; for the hearer may consider, under the term *obscurer parts*, the very essentials of this mysterious doctrine, and become an unitarian, without the least idea that he is quitting the tenet of the established church. Indeed the representation of 'the Deity in a threefold manner, graciously condescending to the good of man,' cannot give an adequate idea of three persons in one godhead co-operating to this; and, instead of pointing out the relation of the three persons to each other, the chief object of the sermon seems to be to divert the mind from its contemplation.

But if on this subject the preacher have failed in a very great degree, on others he pursues his mode of instruction with considerable success; and his sermon on the sabbath is calculated to produce a good effect on a country audience. In the same manner he speaks with adequate simplicity on an important but neglected duty, that of committing our cares to God.

'What is meant, therefore, by *casting all our care upon God*, is this: After our own endeavours, we must trust the event of things to God. We must beg God's assistance in forwarding the means, but must not suffer ourselves to be anxious about the end.

'Thus, for instance, if you have land to manage, do every thing you can to work it properly, and make the best of it, beseeching God to bless your industry. But if your harvest do not answer your expectations, or if the seasons are not exactly as you could wish, or if any little adverse matter unexpectedly happen, be not anxious and distressed, but cast all that care upon God.

'Or if you find your family increase more than your means, do what you can to maintain them: be industrious and frugal; but do not distress yourself about the future—cast that care upon God. When you have given your children a religious education, and have brought them up in industry and frugality, you have done your part; and God will be a better father to your children, if they continue to be religious, than you could have been yourself.

'Thus again, if any of you have sickness in your families, or meet with worldly losses, endeavour not to distress yourselves, but cast all that care upon God. He can bring things right again by means which you cannot foresee. In short, in matters of every kind, both of a public and private concern, let us not distress ourselves

with looking anxiously into the event of things, which is invading God's part. They happen, in a thousand instances, contrary to our suppositions. Let us make ourselves easy therefore about them, and cast the care of these things upon God.

' Thus the duty of casting your care upon God amounts only to this—you must leave those things to the care of God which your own care cannot provide for. So that, at any rate, you see you cannot lose by casting your care on God.' P. 231.

In the 'hints for sermons' we do not perceive any traces of deep thinking; they are chiefly the most obvious ideas that would occur, and are calculated, as sketches of essays, to please in the closet, rather than, as heads of sermons, to instruct the mind, and correct and purify the heart. A young man may use them, however, with great advantage. Let him meditate on a text, place his subject in the best form that it appears to him capable of bearing; and then compare his sketch with that on a similar subject in the work before us: for a little time, such an exercise may be very instructive; but we presume and hope, that, after a short time, he will drink deeper of the celestial spring, and these hints will then scarcely afford him a sufficient quantity of sound nourishment for his weekly discourses.

ART. XVI.—*Considerations on the Increase of the Poor-Rates, and on the State of the Workhouse in Kingston-upon-Hull: to which is now added, a short Account of the Improvements in the Maintenance of the Poor of the Town.* 8vo. 2s. 6d. sewed. Robinsons. 1800.

WE hear perpetually of the insufficiency of the existing system of our poor-laws, and of the enormous sums that are annually exacted throughout the nation under the article of parochial rates: these were, six years ago, moderately calculated at three millions sterling per annum, and cannot now be less than double that amount—a larger sum than was necessary, at the commencement of the last century, for all the exigencies and demands of government. At the present period, therefore, when the price of every thing, no matter from what cause, is intolerably exorbitant, this is a truly serious evil: but, to speak the truth, we have never pitied the public, under the burden it imposes, half so much as under many of a lighter magnitude, but of a different description. The evil, we have always thought, if not of their own making, is at least a voluntary one, and one from which they may in a great measure extricate themselves, whenever they are disposed to do so: but what is the business of every body in theory is too generally the business of nobody in practice; and almost every parish sa-

tisfies itself with complaining, without exertions to obtain redress.

Such, till of late, has been the situation of the united parishes of Kingston-upon-Hull; and the pamphlet before us is of considerable importance, as tending to demonstrate, practically and unequivocally, the benefits that may result from a due superintendence over this extensive branch of political expenditure, and the enforcement of a just and uniform economy. It consists of two parts, neatly drawn up by Mr. Thompson, who was last year the governor of the workhouse corporation. In the former part we have a detailed account of the multiplicity of abuses existing in the collection and distribution of the poor-rates, from the want of a requisite attention on the part of the inhabitants: and in the latter, which was published several months afterwards, a statement of the immense advantage which had resulted to them from their having been roused to an efficient exertion in consequence of the prior address: an exertion which has reduced the poor-rates from the enormous sum of 8320*l.* to 4160*l.* per annum, or just one half of the former amount, notwithstanding the increased and still increasing expense of every necessary article of existence. This, however, is not to be wondered at; for never, most assuredly, was there a more gross and culpable inattention manifested by any body of parochial officers than appears to have been exhibited for many years past by those who had the control of the poor-rates levied at Kingston-upon-Hull. In the workhouse of this sea-port, into which a considerable number of vagabonds, and women of the town of the most vile and abandoned characters, must necessarily be admitted, there was uniformly suffered to exist the most indiscriminate intermixture between these persons and the children of the house, as well as adult males: there was no kind of schoolmaster but a drunken pauper (p. 23); and the morning and evening prayers, which were read by the governor, were often scarcely attended upon at all, or, if attended upon, were accompanied with the utmost mockery and indecency. 'I am obliged to say,' observes our author (p. 25), 'that of upwards of one hundred children, who are annually nursed out of the house, the fate of very few has been known to the public. How many have lived, or how many have died, has not been the subject of examination for many years past!' The number of persons, including children, maintained upon the average within the poor-house, was 210: their total annual expense, for provisions and clothing, salaries of servants, &c. was 2329*l.* 13*s.*; being, with a small deduction for the total sum earned at labour, not less than 10*l.* 12*s.* 7*d.* each per annum, or 4*s.* 1*d.* per week. There are many honest and industrious peasants, and other labourers, in different parts of the country, where provisions are on a par with those at Kingston-upon-Hull, who

support, with much credit to themselves, a family of six or eight children, at the rate of not more than 7*l.* 10*s.* per annum each, and possess a spirit too independent to think of parochial assistance. Of the 210 paupers usually existing within the walls of the Kingston workhouse, 130 are enumerated as adults, and 80 as children. Labour is presumed to be provided for them all. The earnings of the 80 children are calculated at 94*l.* 16*s.* per annum: a sum certainly small, but more than we should have expected from the general relaxation of discipline that was suffered to prevail. But so regardless of authority were the adults, that the whole 130, of which their average number consisted, earned no more, annually, than the truly ridiculous sum of 2*l.* 14*s.* We were not surprised, under this system of culpable negligence, at finding that the town was imposed upon by almost every tradesman whom it employed. Even in the year 1799 it consented to be charged 4½*d.* per lb. for the beef purchased for the workhouse, and not less than 5½*d.* for the cheese; while in many places, where the exchange of money and provisions are on a par with their own, we know, from actual inspection, that at this very time, in consequence of instituting open and annual contracts, neither of those articles cost much more than half the charge thus unmercifully imposed.

With respect to the *out-door* poor, or the pensioners upon the work-house, so little attention was paid to their situation, that when once a name was added to the list, the pension was by many people considered as perpetual: and it was found, on examination, that several women, whose pensions had commenced many years before, had long ameliorated their situation by marriage, and yet continued to receive such pensions under their former names. In many instances one pauper personated another, and thus fraudulently obtained money of the corporation. Nor were there examples wanting of families having been in the habit of receiving pensions in the name of the father, mother, or some other relation, for years after their decease. It is not therefore to be wondered at, that the poor-rates of Kingston-upon-Hull should gradually attain a most enormous magnitude, and compel the inhabitants to afford themselves relief by a strict and uniform investigation: it is not to be wondered at, that, although in 1780 they were not more than 1456*l.*, in 1798 they should be augmented to 8320*l.*; at the former period the number of inhabitants being estimated at 13,675, and the latter at 24,094.

But we turn to a more pleasing subject. The inhabitants have at length been excited to a performance of their duty; order has been restored; a spirit of vigilance has been re-animated; a code of salutary regulations has been adopted; and, in less than nine months after the commencement of this truly beneficial reformation, the following advertisement was

resolved upon in the committee, and ordered to be inserted in the Hull news-papers.

‘ Workhouse, Hull, 20th January, 1800.

‘ The governor and guardians of the poor in Hull are glad to inform the inhabitants of the town, that, although the necessities of the times have greatly increased the number of paupers in the workhouse, as well as the allowances to persons out of the house, they are able to reduce the poor-rates from 8320*l.* to 4160*l.* per annum. The collectors of the poor-rates in the different wards will therefore have directions to receive from each inhabitant, on the first day of February next, only one half of the poor-rate which was paid the last quarter.’ P. 40.

At the commencement of this wholesome reformation, it was resolved upon, by the committee, to obtain an act of parliament to enable the town to dispose of its present workhouse, and to erect another upon a much larger scale: an estimate was ordered to be made of the expense, and the whole was put into a train of execution. By the introduction of the present system of vigilance, however, the committee now find that the existing workhouse is amply large enough, and sufficiently commodious, and that the town will have no necessity for incurring this additional expense. As to the regulations adopted, though there are many which we could recommend as an addition to the list, we rejoice to see, that, for the most part, they are practical and substantial, of easy enforcement, and by no means dependent upon doubtful speculations and equivocal theories. We have no fanciful introduction of complex systems of mechanics, demanding a considerable capital, and exposing the town to perpetual impositions. We have no private chapel in the house itself, nor the useless expense of a house-chaplain and preacher: the ministers of the town, humanely, and without gratuity, take upon themselves the necessary office of private instruction in rotation; and the public churches are open to the inhabitants of the poor-house on the return of Sunday. The labour introduced consists principally of picking oakum (for which, at Hull, there is a perpetual demand), and spinning hemp for the purpose of sacking; by the former of which, every labourer is able to earn at the rate of five pence per day, and by the latter about the same sum. A fourth part of the profits earned are at present allowed the paupers as an encouragement to their industry, a proportion, perhaps, rather superabundantly liberal.

ART. XVII.—*Julian and Agnes; or, the Monks of the Great St. Bernard: a Tragedy, in Five Acts; as it was performed at the Theatre Royal, Drury Lane. By William Sotheby, Esq. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Wright. 1801.*

THIS play has not succeeded on the stage: its first three acts were passed with difficulties and struggles, and the third night was fatal to its existence as a dramatic exhibition. On these occasions it is usual to blame the performers, accidental circumstances, bad taste, or hosts of unreasonable and prejudiced enemies: the author, with a manly dignity, adverts to none of them. Without arrogating to himself the merit of warmer applause, or a better fate, he speaks not of the events of his short dramatic life, nor of the deserts which might have prolonged it. By his publication, he appeals in silence to the world and to posterity. As at least one of these parties, anticipating perhaps the sentence of the other, we are called on to offer our judgement; but we must own that it is by no means a favorable one. We shall, however, give our reasons, nor assume the '*sic volo, sic jubeo.*'

The object of the author appears to be the remorse, the penance of Alfonso. Having lived a life of crime, he endeavours to expiate it by his charitable assistance to the wanderers in the inhospitable regions where the monastery of the Great St. Bernard offers an asylum to the chilled traveler. In the opening of the play he is represented as assiduous in this charitable duty, regardless of cold, of concealed precipices, of the unsuspected *avalanche*, and every other danger. In this cheerless solitude, however, the forsaken wife of Alfonso leads the litter of his almost departed mistress, and, in the course of the drama, Alfonso appears to have been also a murderer. Are these crimes that charity, that benevolence, that the most active exertions of kindness for a time can expiate? Is the murderer, the adulterer, to be exhibited as atoning by some years of penitence for evils so complicated and extensive? A life of repentance may perhaps extenuate one rash unadvised act; but the whole social system would be subverted, if all its laws might be thus infringed, and, on the exchange of forgiveness, the culprit 'die in peace;' while the moral inculcates, from the mouth of an exalted ecclesiast, the efficacy, the sufficiency of this atonement. We mean not to say that repentance has no merit: on the contrary, we must, from the highest authority, admit its efficacy, *with respect to the culprit*; but society demands a greater sacrifice; viz. that the offender be held up to the detestation of posterity, instead of being permitted to close his eyes as the lamented hero of a drama.

Having thus performed our duty to society, we must also

fulfil our office as critics, and must observe, that the plot is too artless to interest. We see at once who Alfonso is, and what the event must be. If it be contended that the action is single, and the play formed strictly on the Grecian model, we should reply, that this is no apology for a dramatic performance in a different country, with different tastes and customs. The language is undoubtedly highly polished and pathetic; while the gloomy penitence of Alfonso is well adapted to the hollow glare of Mr. Kemble's eyes, and the deep solemn sound of his voice: yet the whole failed to interest, because the plot was at once foreseen; and the play in general disgusted, because the most atrocious crimes were thus exhibited without an adequate punishment, without being held up as objects of detestation, or reaping the atrocious reward they deserved. The picture of Alfonso, and the description of his conduct, partake of the solemn gloom of his character.

' Infirmier. I found him in the cemetery, lone,
'Mid many a stranger corse, unsepulchred,
Still gazing on that pilgrim lately found,
When slipp'd the snow-heap from the southern ridge:
His face was yet unchang'd, and calm each feature
As when he rested on the snow, while death
Stole on his dream. So calm, Alfonso look'd;
Such too his smile: each seem'd the other's image.
Scarce could I tell who of the twain had life,
Or who had ceas'd to breathe. Pardon me, fathers!
Long time I fear'd to break that solemn trance;
And, when at last I rous'd him——

' Confessor. 'Twas not kind
To rouse him, brother; well I know his nature:
You should have spar'd him yet a little while.
'Tis long since holy peace has still'd his spirit;
That time his soul had converse with his Maker.

' Provost. But when at last you urg'd him——

' Inf. At the word
At once the trance dissolv'd. He started up,
And frowning darkly on me, bade me say,
That never earthly ear should hear his grief,
If thou reject his pray'r, to wear out life
Here amid perilous labours. Thus he left me,
And onward 'mid the mountains swiftly rush'd,
Regardless of my answer.

' Prior. Holy father,
Send forth the confessor; with him alone
He communes willingly, but shuns us ever,
Save when a sufferer common aid demands.

' Conf. Yes, I have sooth'd his melancholy soul,
And won at times to half-form'd confidence,
By tales of woe, which breath'd to common minds

Had shap'd their spectred night-dreams. Still to these
He gives most heedful ear.

' *Prov.* Go—soothe, persuade him. [Exit Confessor.
It must be—strange, unexpiated guilt
Harrows his soul. And was it right, good prior,
To give him charge among you?

' *Prior.* He deserv'd it.—
Such thoughts as trouble you, at first came o'er us,
When with wan look distraught, and wild attire,
He call'd at midnight, when no foot beside
Long time had scal'd the snow. Our wary eyes
Watch'd o'er him. Stern his brow, and strange his mood;
Yet, at our call submissive: so months past
He still the same. When patient Anselm died,
Heav'n rest his soul! he fell in manhood's prime,
Worn out with toil; Alfonso, now long tried,
Here vow'd to pass his dedicated days
A cloister'd menial; and with earnest prayer
Besought his perilous office. Look on us!
Age and infirmity here bow before you;
Point out the man whose limbs could stand that charge?

' *Prov.* None, none: I blame you not. But say, good prior,
How doth he exercise his charge?

' *Prior.* With zeal
Passing belief; his labour shames our service.
For still in boisterous months, when all within
Shake at the barr'd-out blast;
Singly he ventures forth, his dog sole guide,
At starless midnight, or when drifted heaps
Have hid the pass: nor seeks again the roof,
(Though numbness steal upon his wearied limbs,)
Till he has sounded each snow-cover'd cave,
And long and loudly call'd, if heard from far
Shrieks of the lost night-wanderer strike his ear.
So pass his days away.' P. 15.

The confession of Alfonso to the provost is finely broken
by exclamations. It is formed on the confession of Iachimo,
the most characteristic and striking in our language; but we
can find room for only one other specimen.

' ACT V.—SCENE I.

' *Mountains, covered with snow, surrounding the pass on the north
side of the convent.*

' Alfonso (*climbing over the rocks*).

' *Alfon.* What! force me back!
Roof me in cloister'd cells, where never sun
Glanc'd on the face of man! Must they explore
Which way I tread; and track me to my haunts,
Like a lone beast that makes his viewless lair
In the unfrequented wilderness!

What! am I?
A wretch, moon-stricken, to be ey'd and bound;
Unfit to bide where man makes residence?
Would that I were not what indeed I am!—
Or being what I am, in form a man,
That heav'n had cast me in the idiot mould
Of those that in the valley gasp in the sun
With disproportion'd throats, and uncouth limbs
That know not their own use!

‘ Confessor (*without*).

‘ *Conf.* Alfonso! ho!

‘ *Alfon.* Shout on—shout on—here none will look to find me,—
Or if they chance to spy me, who will dare
Climb up this giddy edge? They nigh had seiz'd me,
But for that jutting point, on which I sprung,
While they past on beneath.

‘ *Enter Infirmier and Confessor.*

‘ *Infir.* See you the track
Of his uncertain step amid the snows?

‘ *Conf.* It ceas'd on sudden.

‘ *Infir.* Long my eye pursu'd it
In mazy shiftings all irregular.

‘ *Conf.* Aye, purposely confus'd to mock pursuit.
He's fled! I fear, for ever.

‘ *Alfon.* (*wildly laughing*). Ha! ha! ha! (*behind the rock*).

‘ *Infir.* Heard you that noise?

‘ *Conf.* Sure from the air it burst;
For never foot of man
E'er scal'd those cliffs.—Say, whither shall we turn?
Your counsel, brother—

‘ *Infir.* Let us once more hail him.
Alfonso!—ho!—Alfonso!—(*clashing of swords without*).

‘ Agnes (*without*).

‘ Agnes. Murder—Murder!

‘ Francis (*without*).

‘ *Fran.* Help!—from the convent help!—

‘ *Conf.* What cry is that?

‘ *Infir.* I hear the tread of feet.

‘ *Enter Francis (wounded).*

‘ *Infir.* Speak, wherefore thus?
Thy looks are wild!—Ha! there is blood upon thee—

‘ *Fran.* Your limbs are fresh—Fly! to the convent haste.
Ring out the alarum bell.—Oh, haste!—Assassins,
Disguis'd like those that on the mountains urge
The chamois chace, have seiz'd the hapless ladies.
I battled long as these sore-mangled limbs
Could stand their poinards.

‘ *Alfon.* (leaping from the rock, and snatching his sword).
Lo! th’ avenger here.
Wash off, kind heav’n! the murder on my soul
By the assassin’s blood.—Come—lead the way—
I have in battle cop’d with mighty men,
And foil’d proud warriors.’ P. 43.

‘ *Alfonso, rushing in, stabs one of the assassins, and, in struggling with the other, who flies, is himself wounded.*

‘ *Alfon.* This to thy heart! Fly, murderer—thou art free.

‘ *Agnes.* Oh, what words
Can rightly praise; what earthly gifts reward thee?
Thus, on thy hand, the countess of Tortona
Prints the warm kiss of gratitude.

‘ *Alfon.* (looking up to heaven). O, strike me dead!

‘ *Agnes.* What! for this deed?—Let it not grieve thy soul.
Long ages past, a voice from heaven decreed,
“Who spills man’s blood, by man his blood be spilt.”

‘ *Alfon.* But, but forgive me.

‘ *Agnes.* In what hast thou offended?

‘ *Alfon.* I have left

The path where virtue clasp’d me: I have strown
In the smooth vale of innocence and peace
Rank baleful seed; and I have pluck’d its fruit
That leaves a sear and blister on the soul,
When all of earth sinks to its native dust,
Thou know’st me now.

‘ *Agnes.* In truth, I know thee not.

Lift up thy cowl, thy features may instruct me.

‘ *Alfon.* Oh! ask not that—you’ll turn away in horror.
Let me depart unknown.—Yet, oh! her pardon.
I am—How shall I dare to look on thee?—I was,
In happier years, when virtue led my steps,
Thy husband.

‘ *Agnes.* Thou my husband!—(Recollecting him, screams),
Julian, Julian—
And yet I knew thee not.—These arms shall hold thee,
Husband.—

‘ *Alfon.* Oh! sound—once grateful to my soul.
But do not stain thy unpolluted lip.—
Look—look not on me so.—Oh! if thine eye
Flash’d vengeful lightning, I’d not turn away.
Why dost thou weep?—I cannot shed a tear.

‘ *Agnes* (embracing him). Weep in these arms;
And, as I clasp thee to my heart, recall
Past years of bliss scarce earthly!—Oh, recall
The nuptial vow that link’d our hearts in one;
And the fond hope, oft breath’d in prayers to heaven,
That in each other’s arms, blessing and blest,
Our life at once might close.
It hath pleas’d
The Searcher of the heart, by misery’s test,
To prove my soul; and here ’mid lonely wilds,

Where none but heaven can witness, I invoke
Its minist'ring host again to grave the vow
That links my lot to thine.—O, Julian, Julian,
Come to my arms, and be at peace once more.

' *Alfon.* I have borne unmov'd
The shock of sternest horror—but thy kindness,—
Agnes!—I thought not ever to have known
The blessing of such tears—

' *Agnes.* Oh, thou hast groan'd,
In bitterness of spirit, to the storm
That smote thee, sweeping by on icy wing :
And none has listen'd to thy woe, no voice
Spake consolation.

Behold me, now,
Firm at thy side, more blest to stand the storm,
And soothe thy misery, than in thoughtless years,
When, the vain partner of thy joys alone,
I glitter'd in thy sunshine !

' *Alfon.* Heaven reward thee !—

' *Agnes.* Heaven hath rewarded me.—Once more we meet.
Oh, give me all thy grief, and I will steal
Each pang away, and lull thee to repose.
These arms amid the wilderness shall stretch
Soft shelter o'er thee: here thy brow be pillow'd;
And, ever as thou wak'st, the eye of Agnes
Shall gladden thine; till, in the gradual peace
That gains upon thee, I shall taste once more
All bliss that earth can give.

' *Alfon.* (*falling on her neck, then starts back in horror*).
Peace! never, Agnes—

'Tis virtue's heritage. Guilt, guilt is on me.

' *Agnes.* None o'er earth
Pass without speck.

' *Alfon.* Mine is no common guilt.

' *Agnes.* Bow not beneath despair; but on the base
Of firm repentance raise th' unshaken column
Where virtue rests. Julian, I woo thee not
To luxury, and light pleasures, and the dream
Of joy departed.—No—but, hand in hand,
Oh, let us, in affliction doubly dear,
Right onward journeying thro' the vale of woe,
Soothe and support each other! Once again
Here we have met; and never, never more,
If virtue yet has force to sway the heart,
Shall earthly power divide us.' P. 47.

Alfonso is reconciled to his wife and mistress, and dies of his wound—Strange to say, the villain 'dies in peace!' On the whole, in a moral and in a dramatic view, this play is very exceptionable; yet the language is highly poetical and descriptive: nor, while Mrs. Siddons and Mr. Kemble performed the

only characters which required talents and abilities, will the world think that it was not adequately supported.

ART. XVIII.—*Facts and Observations tending to show the Practicability and Advantage, to the Individual and the Nation, of producing in the British Isles Clothing-Wool, equal to that of Spain: together with some Hints towards the Management of Fine-Woolled Sheep.* By Caleb Hillier Parry, M.D. F.R.S. &c. 4to. 4s. sewed. Cadell and Davies. 1800.

WE have engaged a little in this controversy, and on the side of our present author. His experience and observations have been very extensive; and he contends, that the Spanish rams with the Ryeland ewes produce lambs whose fleece is in every respect equal to that of the Spanish sheep, without any peculiar management or trouble: even the fattest sheep carry the finest fleeces. Dr. Parry defends the cause of the British wool with great zeal in every point, and in most instances carries full conviction. The other questions formerly stated still remain unsettled.

Dr. Parry thinks the unqualified prohibition of the export of British wool from Great-Britain impolitic. Some of his remarks we shall transcribe without a comment, not because we assent, for we think they admit of a reply, but to leave them floating in the public mind, and that we may revert to them on another occasion.

‘Must I here advert to that childish apprehension, which supposes all the wool of the kingdom sent out of it, and three hundred thousand workmen at once reduced to beggary? Is then our commercial spirit so depressed, that other nations can afford to buy the raw materials of manufacture at a dearer rate than ourselves? There is nothing in experience to justify this apprehension. I have it from good authority, that the year before the commencement of the present war, nearly forty millions of pounds weight of cotton wool were imported into this country. Whence did we obtain this immense mass? From our own colonies? Not a tenth part. We had it from the Turks, from the Spaniards, from the French, from the Dutch, from the Portuguese; all of whose markets were equally open to every other nation. What shall we say of Spanish wool itself, the chief object of this very discussion? Does the Spaniard restrict the sale of this valuable commodity to the English? We buy it, because we can afford to bid most, and pay soonest for it. But if these causes give us the preference in foreign markets above other nations, nay above the growers themselves, is there any just reason to presume that any foreigners will be able to out-bid us in our own markets for our own produce, loaded as it must be with the additional expence of freight and insurance?’

“But the price of labour will be so small in France, that she will be able to purchase our wool at a dearer rate than ourselves, and therefore to undersell us in foreign markets.”

‘This is a plea, which, on every proposition to remove restrictions, has been always advanced in theory, and never substantiated in fact. Who does not remember the noise of this kind which was made twenty years ago respecting the Irish, when it was in contemplation to admit of their importing into this country, I think, sail-cloth, stockings, and perhaps certain other wrought goods, which I do not now recollect? The event, however, has been by no means what was apprehended. It is not the mere lowness of day wages, nor industry, nor skill, separately, which constitutes cheapness of labour; but all three, taken together, and chiefly the two last. In the sale of our cotton and woollen goods, we have always, when acting honestly, experienced an astonishing preference over other nations. If this has arisen in part from our superior command of money on every emergency, and our consequent power of giving larger and longer credit to our purchasers, it is also in part owing to our pre-eminence of skill, derived from long habits of commerce, and operating in various ways so as to produce better and cheaper fabrics. It is true that our wealth is still in these respects a remote cause, as it enables us to buy raw articles in larger quantities, and therefore cheaper; to sell at a less profit than smaller capitalists; and to expend, as we have already done, immense sums on all the mechanical substitutes for manual labour. A system which has thus surmounted its difficulties, and is already fully formed for action, is far above the petty inconveniences arising either from a small increase of price in the basis of its manufacture, or a slight augmentation of wages to many of its workmen.’ P. 71.

“But the French, in case of exportation, will employ our wool, and rival us in our own trade with our own materials.”

‘So much the better. It would be miserable for the human race were there no competition between man and man, and between country and country. New sources of commerce are continually arising from colonisation and civilisation; and the wants of mankind are a gulf which it is impossible to fill. Rivalship is necessary, in order to call forth industry and talents, and to produce excellence. We set out foremost in the race; and I trust that we shall eventually preserve our station, though we may occasionally feel in our necks the breath of our competitors. The progress of commercial knowledge and success must be gradual; and if a considerable term of years must elapse before the French can reach our present height of manufacture, it may reasonably be hoped that such a period will not remain lost and unimproved by us.

“But the price of manufactured goods at home would increase; and that would be a great evil.”

‘To whom? To the manufacturers? Certainly not; when increased within any just, or on the present occasion probable, limits. Spanish wool has of late become dearer; and some consequent advance has taken place in the price of superfine cloth. But I do not hear that less cloth has, on that account, been made; and if

the sale be not diminished, and the increase of the price of fabricated goods be proportioned to that of the materials, the manufacturer can be no loser. Nay, it is well known, that, on most occasions which respect what may be considered as necessities, nay some luxuries, all such advances, when moderate, turn out to his advantage. We must remember what happened a few years since from the taxes on wine and post-horses. The secondary advance cannot be made by fractions; and the parties take sufficient care to provide against any accidental diminution of demand.

‘It must then be the consumer who suffers. Every man who pays for a commodity more than he would have done if he had obtained it by other means, may be said to suffer a loss. But the question is as to the justifiableness of those other means. In the present instance, the loss is what the civilians style *damnum sine injuria*. I ask, what is there of common justice or modesty in that principle, which imposes a *maximum* of value on one sort of produce, while it leaves others wholly, or in great measure, free. This advantage is allowed with regard even to those which are essentially necessary to the subsistence of mankind; such as corn itself, the exportation of which is permitted with us when its price is reduced below a certain standard.’ P. 74.

Extreme heat is confessedly injurious to wool, and should, if possible, be avoided. It is doubtful whether extreme cold be equally hostile.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE.

POLITICS.....POLITICAL ECONOMY.

ART. 19.—*A few Reflexions on recent Events, concluding with a Defence of Sir Hyde Parker's Convention with Denmark.* By William Hunter, Esq. 8vo. 1s. Stockdale. 1801.

‘THE extreme folly of supposing, that any few states, by a mere act of their free-will, can annul those maxims and regulations which, for upwards of six hundred years, have been, by all civilised communities, regarded as the law of nations, and acknowledged and submitted to as such; and that they can not only accomplish this, but that they can substitute in their place a new set of laws, entirely of their own creation, screening themselves from all inquiry and molestation, but dangerously affecting the rights and sovereignty of other independent countries, is really too preposterous to merit the trouble (however small that trouble may be) of a serious refutation.’

P. 9.

Little did the writer think that a treaty at Petersburg would set-

the 'a new code of maritime law,' and that an express negotiation would grant to the northern powers the principal points for which they dared the fury of our navy. Our brave army of Egypt has been 'fortunate enough to surmount those great difficulties and impediments which did obstruct and surround it:' yet they have not been fortunate enough to keep possession of their conquests; and Egypt is once more to become the prey of barbarians. The reflexions submitted to us on other points are very trite; and the defence of the convention requires no assurances on the part of the writer, that 'his strongest passion is the love of his country, and his warmest wish its prosperity and glory.'

ART. 20.—*An Address to the British Volunteers, and my Countrymen, respecting the threatened Invasion of England by French Usurpers. By a Volunteer and a plain Englishman.* 8vo. 1s. Hatchard. 1801.

A rodomontade effusion from some well-meaning volunteer, who had collected together all the rhetoric of his corps on the subject of invasion, in a public-house. 'We, who have conquered one half of mankind, and at present hold the other at defiance, and who have hitherto set examples and prescribed laws to one half of the world,' are asked this question:

'Can a people be said to be free, whose sacred mansions and habitations are liable to be searched and ransacked at all hours and seasons; wives dragged from their husbands, husbands from their wives; and the innocent and helpless babe often torn from its parents upon mere suspicion or pretext;—who are in perpetual danger of being consigned to solitary dungeons, or imprisonment for life, there to remain in agony and sad obscurity, without the advantage of an appeal to those salutary and invaluable laws, known and experienced by Englishmen alone?' p. 9.

What answer will be given by those Englishmen, who, after a confinement in solitary cells and various prisons for nearly three years on mere suspicion, could not obtain the trial they solicited, nor, from the act of indemnity, prosecute the parties by whom they had been thus imprisoned?

ART. 21.—*The Political Panorama of 1801. By the Devil.* 8vo. 2s. Ridgway. 1801.

A stupid title to a more stupid performance. John Bull is supposed to meet the Devil-upon-two-sticks on Hampstead-heath, who shows him a variety of scenes; and John Bull bursts out into various fits of vapid declamation. This poor devil has not one trait of the genuine devil that was bottled up by the conjuror; and we are rather surprised that such nonsense could find a respectable publisher.

ART. 22.—*The Opinion of an Old Englishman: in which National Honour and National Gratitude are principally considered. Humbly offered to his Countrymen and Fellow Citizens, on the Resignation of the late Ministry.* 8vo. 6d. Hatchard. 1801.

A high-flown panegyric on Mr. Pitt, of whose services the nation does not seem to entertain so exalted an opinion as the writer: and

talents, rank, and fortune, are in vain solicited by him, to take the lead in paying some mark of respect to the fallen minister. The entrance and the exit of the two premiers, the father and the son, form a striking contrast to each other: the retreat of the former from office was accompanied by addresses from all parts of England: on the dismissal of the latter, no voice of regret was heard, and his name lives only in connexion with the burden of our taxes.

ART. 23.—*The Trial of Republicanism; or, a Series of Political Papers, proving the injurious and debasing Consequences of Republican Government and Written Constitutions. With an Introductory Address to the Hon. Thomas Erskine, Esq. By Peter Porcupine. 8vo. 2s. Cobbett and Morgan. 1801.*

Under a very foolish title, much important information is communicated on the present state of some parts of North America. The writer supposes himself to be the advocate of monarchy against republicanism: the witnesses whom he examines are Dr. Priestley and Mr. Griffiths, both of whom point out defects in the government of the American republic. But these defects, it is to be observed, have nothing to do with the question of republican government; and, on the same principle, the use of a king in Great-Britain might be derided, because, in the trial of monarchy, witnesses should be summoned to prove the enormities that take place in Morocco and Constantinople. It is not easy to conjecture what good motive the writer could have for selecting the United States of America in the discussion of his question. The republic of Algiers would have suited his purpose much better; and he is to be considered only as a bad advocate, who thinks himself at liberty to advance what he pleases for his client, and to utter what he pleases against his adversary. A wise man knows that monarchy, aristocracy, democracy, have each their advantages and disadvantages; and the good of mankind is not consulted by indiscriminate praise or abuse of any form of government.

ART. 24.—*A Twelve-Penny Answer to a Three-Shillings-and-Sixpenny Pamphlet, entitled A Letter on the Influence of the Stoppage of Issues in Specie at the Bank of England, on the Prices of Provisions and other Commodities. 8vo. Richardson. 1801.*

The ridiculous title given to this pamphlet, argues, in its writer, no small contempt of his adversary, a merchant, who, nevertheless, is entitled to consideration and respect. Two important events have of late been very generally connected together, the stoppage of the Bank and the high price of provisions. Mr. Boyd has embraced this opinion: he has had fatal experience of the ill effects of paper-money, in his own personal negotiations; and conceiving his opinion corroborated by the increased circulation of Bank-notes, he attributed more to the effect of these notes than such increase seems rationally to justify. On the other hand, the writer before us would attempt to demonstrate that the stoppage of the Bank has been attended by no ill effects whatever; that Bank-paper was never in higher credit; that it circulates freely throughout the nation, and returns to the

Bank without undergoing any diminution of value.' The freedom of circulation, we apprehend, is owing to a cause overlooked by this writer, namely, the immense taxation of the country; whence it ensues, that no note stays long with any person: it is paid to government, and re-issued by government; and thus the continued change from hand to hand renders its depreciation far different from that of the assignats in France, where the movements of the government being checked, the circulation of its paper-money was equally impeded. Our writer attributes the rise of provisions to the war, to scarcity, to the increased trade and riches of the country. 'Bank-paper (he tells us) has not hitherto done us any harm; but it will not be denied, that an object of so much importance to the community as a general circulating medium is, ought not to remain at the discretionary management of a body of mercantile men, not at the controul of government.' We cannot subscribe to the proposition, that the change of money for paper has done us no harm, though the extent of that harm is not so easily distinguished as the mischief arising from other causes. But as the whole body of writers have agreed upon the subject, that an uncontroled issue of this paper, by a corporation of mercantile men, is injurious to the community, it is to be hoped that the attention of the legislature will be soon drawn to this important point, and those checks be applied which the nature of the case evidently requires.

ART. 25.—*Refutation of certain Misrepresentations relative to the Nature and Influence of Bank-Notes, and of the Stoppage of Issues in Specie at the Bank of England, upon the Prices of Provisions, as stated in the Pamphlets of Walter Boyd, Esq. and Mr. William Frend. By T. S. Surr. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Hurst. 1801.*

The Bank has found a champion in one of its clerks, who bestirs himself most valiantly in its defence, and treats, as might be expected, its antagonists with very little ceremony. The greater part of his animadversions are bestowed on Mr. Frend's pamphlet, which is analysed page by page, and its metaphors and tales occasion no small degree of uneasiness. Scarcely any personal reflexions are bestowed on Mr. Boyd; but Mr. Frend, 'with the best intentions in the world perhaps, has published speculations, which many, who rely on his great talents and integrity, may, if uncontroverted, receive as matter of fact.'—This compliment to Mr. Frend is to prepare him for 'the mischievous tendency of the misconceptions and misrepresentations contained in his pamphlet;' and the logic 'expected from a mathematician of Mr. Frend's celebrity,' is balanced by his writing 'mere schoolboy declamation.' The writer declares, 'I would not give any personal offence to Mr. Frend, whose talents as a mathematician I admire, and whose motives in the present publication I by no means arraign.' Yet having cited two pages of his pamphlet, he adds: 'but I repeat that the whole reasoning, in the above-quoted pages, rests on falsehood.' Thus compliment and calumny go hand-in-hand with respect to Mr. Frend: but with regard to the Bank there is nothing but compliment; and its notes are asserted to be 'the very life and soul of the commerce of the empire.'

'To calumniate the Bank, as a cause of national calamity, appears to me (a bank-clerk) the foulest species of political blasphemy of which an Englishman can be guilty.' Indeed he is totally at a loss 'to account for a single whisper to the prejudice of the Bank, of twenty-six gentlemen, chosen for their independence of fortune and unsullied reputation, from among the merchants of a city, where honour and integrity are as necessary to the existence of a commercial character as is the crimson fluid of the veins to animal existence.' The well-known operations of the Bank are described; and the amount of the pamphlet is, that the Bank has never issued 'a single one-pound note without value received.' This unfortunately is no answer to the objections raised against the present Bank-paper, nor is that the point at issue. Neither Mr. Boyd nor Mr. Frend doubts that the Bank receives a valuable consideration for every piece of paper issued; but the doubt is, whether it advances a valuable consideration in its issued notes; and this, which is the material point under discussion, is evaded by the author of the work before us, who would be called upon by the gentlemen he attacks, to answer this question, before they could possibly take notice of his strictures on their publications.

ART. 26.—*Thoughts on Parliamentary Reform, and on Reform in general; in which the Nature of the British Constitution, the Government, its component Parts and Establishments, &c. are freely but briefly considered. By an Ex-Member of the present Parliament. 8vo. 1s. Jordan. 1801.*

These dreams have, we doubt not, amused the writer; but they must have a great deal of leisure who can listen to them. 'The author, he tell us, mounts his hobby, and very probably may be run away with.' We wish him a pleasant journey. His hobby, however, is at best but an ambling nag, that can never be spurred into a gallop; and the rider is in more danger of being simply carried astray, than run away with, by such a beast.

ART. 27.—*The dark Cloud in the Political Hemisphere broken, and a bright Beam of Consolation issuing therefrom, in Favour of his Majesty's Ministers and depressed Stockholders. With a few Words of Advice to Growlers, and the Dissatisfied of every Description; also a Method prescribed, founded on Reason and Experience, for removing their Discontent, and rendering their Minds easy under the present State of Public Affairs. By an old Naval Officer. 8vo. 1s. Scott. 1801.*

This old naval officer, we doubt not, fights better than he writes; and as he has laid before a nobleman, high in office, his plan of constructing thirty ships of the line in six months, we hope that he will receive a reward adequate to his labours, and his zeal for the service of his country, notwithstanding his plan is not now likely to be put into immediate execution.

RELIGION.

ART. 28.—*Remarks on the Revelation of St. John, illustrating the present State of Christianity. By a Christian. 8vo. 1s. Chapman.*

This is an attempt, and a very laudable one, to correct some errors into which Mede and bishop Newton, for whom the writer entertains, justly, the highest respect, seem, in the interpretation of a few passages of the Revelation, to have fallen. The numerous difficulties attending an explanation of the seventh seal are well known to every reader of prophecy, though the time seems approaching very fast when the events prefigured by that seal will be clearly understood. The destruction of the papal and Mahometan powers, notwithstanding the cessation of the war, cannot, from the general aspect of things, be long delayed; and the conclusion of their impieties will confirm the predictions of St. John, and be a clue to those which will still remain to be accomplished. The author of this work has evidently studied his subject with the greatest attention; and if our difficulties be not entirely removed, a favourable impression is left on the mind by his labours, that farther inquiry will, ere long, be attended with additional success.

'We are now enabled to trace the antichristian church of Rome through the opposition made to its establishment by the Christians of the eighth and ninth centuries, and the admonitions of the witnesses since its influence has been matured: we have also seen the judgements inflicted on the beast and his followers for their disregard of these admonitions, which we cannot too attentively consider; for never was there a circumstance, seemingly, more unfavourable to the Christian cause, than the unprecedented success which has attended a people openly professing infidelity, nor one in reality more favourable when measured by the scale of Revelation. Traced by this unerring guide, it bears the most ample testimony to its truth, and, by presenting a perfect type of the destruction of the great enemy of the Gospel, confirms the sentence pronounced by the mouth of the two prophets: the temporary triumphs of antichrist are no longer objects of fear, and the terror of his arm but the seal of their services; the boast of infidelity becomes the vengeance of the Lord, and its greatest exploits but the performance of his will.' P. 41.

ART. 29.—*An Appendix to the Revelation of St. John, compared with itself and the rest of Scripture, &c.; containing a Recapitulation and Conclusions from the preceding Tract. 8vo. 6d. Hurst. 1801.*

This Appendix will be useful to those who have read the tract to which it belongs; and the following key to the interpretation of symbolical language may be pertinently applied by every reader of prophecy.

1. A symbolical expression is always primarily to be interpreted symbolically, but is often and generally literally fulfilled in a secondary sense besides, as is remarkable in Rev. xvii. and xviii.

2. A word has often two or more symbolical meanings, which are all to be preserved; and whole visions in like manner have a dou-

ble symbolical interpretation as well as sentences and words. Vid. Rev. x. 8.

* 3. The actions and words of the prophet are symbolical of those of the church at the time of the event adumbrated in the vision. Ezek. iv.

* 4. The description of a kingdom is taken from a view of all its successive changes, and of its acme. Rev. xiii. 7. xi. 15.

* 5. Succession of time is often signified by order of place. Dan. ii. 39. Rev. xi. 1, 2.

* 6. Time, place, and other circumstances, fix the meaning of symbols; as for instance, a star may signify a king; but if the sun be mentioned at the same time, it must signify an inferior ruler; and so the sun may signify the king of heaven, or an earthly king, or the head of a family, as the accidents require. e. g. When we are talking of England, *the king* must signify the king of England.

* 7. The duration of an action is dated from its beginning: thus the prevailing power of Antichrist, and the fall of Babylon, as well as the reign of Christ, are considered as complete from that period when they begin, however partial and inconsiderable they may then be. p. 4.

ART. 30.—*The Duty of keeping the Christian Sabbath Holy: a Sermon, preached in the Chapel of the Hospital for the Maintenance and Education of exposed and deserted young Children, on Sunday Morning, March 8, 1801. By the Rev. John Hewlett, B.D. &c. 8vo. 1s. Rivingtons, 1801.*

The neglect of the duty which is made the subject of this discourse is too apparent in the vicinity of London; and every fashionable congregation, for fashion takes frequently the lead in churches as out of them, requires upon this head continued admonitions. The preacher has animadverted with equal skill and propriety on the various ways by which the upper ranks dissipate their time, and profane the sabbath. He draws a just distinction between a puritanical and pharisaical observance of the day, and the levity with which it is regarded by too many of the frequenters of Kensington Gardens; by those who hurry from the church to 'swell the gazing thoughtless crowd of sabbath breakers, to make a sort of exhibition of themselves, by joining in such a splendid throng as no day but the sabbath can exhibit, and such as no motive can collect together but the wish to see and to be seen.' The governors of the charity, before whom this discourse was preached, requested that it might be printed, at their expense, for more general circulation; and they who are not immersed in the vortex of dissipation, will do well to put it into the hands of young persons, and families who have not quite extinguished every serious thought of Christianity.

ART. 31.—*Two Discourses, preached: the first, on Occasion of the Death of the Rev. Mr. Alice; and, the second, before the Friends of the Sabbath Evening Schools in Paisley. By W. Ferrier. With a short authenticated Account of the Rise, Progress, and present State of the Sunday Schools in Paisley. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Vernor and Hood.*

These two discourses, without having any affinity with each other,

are viewed into one pamphlet. The writer is no doubt a worthy and pious man; and, when our readers are told, that, independently of being extremely prolix in themselves, they are followed by an appendix that occupies not less than *a hundred and seventy-six pages*, they will readily acknowledge that he is also willing to make the most of his subject.

The former of these discourses is a funeral sermon preached on occasion of the death of the Rev. Mr. Alice, with whom Mr. Ferrier was associated as the junior minister in the same congregation.— (The text is taken from 2 KINGS, ii. 14.) We doubt not that the deceased merited the encomiums which are here passed upon him. There is one trait of his character which we shall select, as doing honour to his memory, and with a view of exhibiting him for general imitation..... ‘There was one excellence,’ says Mr. Ferrier, ‘in which I think I may be confident he never was, and could not be, surpassed. Among an assemblage of virtues, it formed, perhaps, his most discriminative characteristic. It was his most strict observance of that apostolical precept, “Speak evil of no man.” He was never known to transgress it. And the observance of it, how difficult soever experience proves it to be, must have been easy to one whose heart, as much as any man’s, was a stranger to envy, and ill-will, and the whole train of malignant passions. No absent person was ever the object of his censure. He discountenanced the back-biting tongue. He was the guardian of every man’s character. As far as truth would permit, or charity could believe and hope, he was every man’s apologist. He was accustomed to interpret the conduct of those around him upon the most generous principles. His differences in matters of conscience with the wise and good, did not, on the one hand, prejudice him against their persons or their integrity, or bind him to their excellencies; nor, on the other, shake his steadfastness to his own clear convictions. They only proved occasions, and afforded scope, for the exercise of his abundant charity. In reference to many such cases of difference, he often remembered, and often repeated the maxims of Paul, “Let every man be fully persuaded in his own mind. Who art thou that judgest another man’s servant; to his own master he standeth or falleth.” Adhering with inflexible exactitude in his own practice to the dictates of a conscience which was ever consulting the oracles of truth, he respected the rights of conscience in other men. Refusing to subject his own to any but God, he never made it a rule for that of his neighbour. Hence, he could allow in others several things from which he abstained himself. He was too enlightened, indeed, to be superstitiously scrupulous. But still upon himself his severest restrictions were imposed, and still upon himself his severest censures fell; while his candour and indulgence were for other men: herein displaying, if I do not greatly err, the true liberality of a conscientious Christian.’ P. 46.

The second discourse was preached before the society formed in Paisley, among Christians of different denominations, for the encouragement and support of ‘the sabbath evening schools.’

In a town where a large and flourishing manufactory is carried on,

and in which multitudes of children are engaged through the entire week from a very early age, the utility of affording them religious instruction on some part of the Sunday is evident. It is stated, that, in September 1798, there were no fewer than twenty-seven Sunday-schools erected in Paisley, at which 1526 children regularly attended; and notwithstanding the intermixture of congregations of different religious opinions, from the plan and management stated in the appendix, we believe the bishop of Rochester would look in vain for any contagion of atheism or jacobinism. The business has commenced on a large and liberal scale, and reflects honour on the promoters of the institution.

In this second discourse, which is upon the benefit of religious instruction, Mr. Ferrier seizes an opportunity of combating the theoretical speculations of our modern infidels, and makes the following sensible observations upon the principles of a well-known writer of the present day.

* We will venture to say; that, notwithstanding all the sacred knowledge with which revelation has directly or circuitously supplied our present infidels, many of them seem to be as ignorant of the nature, the obligations, and the only true supports of morality, as if they had dreamed in the darkness of Heathenism. Let us hear one of the most conspicuous of these ingenious but vain speculators. "Pleasure or happiness," says he, "is the sole end of morality;" and again, "Morality is nothing more than a calculation of pleasures." And he tells us, that from this calculation all references to "a world to come" must be "dismissed" as "air-built speculations, which cannot enter into any liberal and enlightened system of morality." Morality, then, is nothing more than a calculation of present pleasures! And who is to be the calculator? This man, or any other, for us, and for the world, or every individual for himself? Truly, this method of calculation, this estimate of pleasures from which "speculations upon the chances of a world to come" are excluded, this "liberal and enlightened morality" which recognises neither the existence and government of God, nor the responsibility and immortality of man, has filled the earth, from age to age, with murders, fornications, adulteries, perjury, fraud, rapine, sedition, rebellion, and every evil work. Behold then a moralist, who understands nothing of morality; who discerns not its connexion with a Divine Legislator, an Omniscient Witness, an Almighty Governor, a supreme and most righteous Judge, and a future retribution; but contemptuously explodes its most grand and interesting references, its prime obligations and most powerful sanctions! Behold a morality which is referable to no certain standard, reducible to no fixed rules, and enforced by no adequate motives!—a morality which abolishes the essential distinction between right and wrong, which abandons rectitude at the prospect of temporal pain or pleasure, and which tends to extinguish conscience in men, to banish from the world the remembrance of God, and to annihilate those sacred and supreme obligations and restraints which have hitherto been found most efficacious for preserving the order of human society! This morality, which would detach the anticipations, the solitudes, and the inter-

ests of man from "a world to come," offers no less violence to human nature than indignity to divine revelation, and is as repugnant to the original and inextinguishable principles of the former, as to the light and spirit of the latter. Most unreasonably it assumes, that those presentiments of "a world to come" which animate and elevate the good, and which ever recoil with dread upon those who are most anxious to "dismiss" them, and who to escape the fears of futurity would gladly resign its hopes; that impressions which have been universal and perpetual among our species,—are not the result of the constituent principles of our frame. This morality degrades man into a most incongruous being, whose noblest capacities and tendencies, whose most exalted hopes, and whose most insuperable fears, have no existent object: a being which Nature (whatever Nature means) most wantonly tantalises, and cruelly dooms to be the incessant sport of tormenting phantoms. This morality represents the whole moral world as a mighty anarchy, a scene of innumerable wrongs, which are never to be redressed or revenged. It "dismisses" those motives which have the most commanding and salutary influence on the human heart, and those sentiments which are often the sole excitement and support of virtue, and the sole curb and correction of vice. It relieves concealed, enterprising, or triumphant wickedness from its worst terrors, but from suffering goodness it withholds the consolations of hope. It is a morality without truth, dignity, and energy. It is the morality of atheism: and all the sublime virtue predicted from it is but extravagant reverie and air-built speculation." P. 94.

ART. 32.—*Dr. Gill's Reasons for separating from the Church of England, calmly considered. In a Letter to a Friend. By Richard Hart, A. M. &c. 12mo. 6d. Rivingtons. 1801.*

To those dissenters who pin their faith on Dr. Gill's reasons for separating from the church, we earnestly recommend this serious, calm, modest defence of the establishment. The nature of Dr. Gill's objections is plainly stated, and clearly discussed. In many points it is well known that the term *the dissenting interest* has as much weight, or more, with its different sects, than even the word *church* possesses over its respective members. We could extract many parts of this pamphlet with great pleasure; but the following paragraph, from its importance to both parties, churchmen and dissenters, must not be omitted. Facts might be brought, perhaps, with no great difficulty to establish the truth advanced in the concluding period.

"There exists among the dissenters, it is said, a certain jurisdiction, called a "board of ministers;" a subjection to which we should feel to be very unpleasant. This, properly speaking, is a spiritual court, or sanhedrim, consisting of delegates from the different churches; and their authority is more extensive than that of any bishop in his diocese. It is a novel institution, not only uncountenanced by the New Testament, but totally inconsistent with the nature of a distinct, independent, congregational church, governed by a single pastor. And as their powers are discretionary, and undefined by law, they may possibly, on some occasions, be exercised, if

not by the present members of the board, yet by their successors, in a manner that is partial and disagreeable, or even oppressive; especially to those whom poverty arranges in the lowest class of society. From hence it appears, that every individual person, whether public minister or private member, enjoys a much greater portion of liberty and genuine independency in the church of England, than he can in any congregation of dissenters.' p. 51.

ART. 33.—*Hierogamy; or, an Apology for the Marriage of Roman-Catholic Priests, without a Dispensation. In a Letter to the Rev. J. A. from the Rev. John Anthony Gregg. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Hatchard. 1801.*

The writer stands in need of no apology. He has done that for which every good protestant will reverence him: he has abjured the errors of the church of Rome; and all her superstitious mummery has no longer any control over him. As a priest of that church, and as long as he was under her domination, marriage was interdicted to him: on quitting that church, he married; and we say that in acting in this matter, according to his own discretion, no man can blame him. A protestant cannot condemn him, for he knows the law of celibacy to be antichristian and absurd: a papist cannot think that the act of matrimony makes him worse than before, for, in quitting the church of Rome, he was, according to the folly of the Romanists, guilty of all the sins that can be devised. We rejoice, however, that the scruples of some have produced from him these strong reasons for his own conduct, this vindication of the holy state of matrimony, and rejection of the carnal state of celibacy. We recommend his work to catholic priests in general; and, by our authority, as great as that of the successor to St. Peter, we absolve him from all the foolish vows which so many priests take, and so few are able to perform. Our readers may judge of the tenor of the work from the following extract.

'I think therefore I have proved upon the whole that the Roman ecclesiastical celibacy, as to preference before the protestant discretion, is a frivolous superstition; and that it is in itself an unnatural and vexatious restraint, and a monstrous thing in society and morality. I shall not now enlarge upon its more frequent mischievous effects, and general pernicious tendency. It is even sufficient, that it has been clearly discovered to be inadequate to its spiritual purpose. And being wanting in the conditions of a rational institution, and in the essential properties of a solemn promise, vow, or oath, it affords us grounds to conclude, that it never deserved the sanction of reason, the solemn ratification of religion, and the stamp of the omniscient divinity. The vinculum or bond, then, of such a vow, &c. cannot be binding. Its object is not *de meliore bono*. The state of one's own discretion is preferable.' p. 28.

LAW.

ART. 34.—*An Examination of the Statutes now in Force relating to the Assize of Bread; with Remarks on the Bill intended to be brought into Parliament by the Country Bakers. By James Nasmyth, D.D. &c. 8vo. 2s. 6d. White. 1800.*

Every thing proceeding from the pen of this worthy magistrate de-

serves the serious attention of all for whose use it is designed. In the subject of this work, indeed, the public in general is interested; but as the investigation of tables is not calculated for the great majority of readers, the examination of, and the consequences derived from them, may be more particularly recommended to millers, bakers, justices of the peace, and members of parliament. The two latter characters are required, from their offices, to study them with attention; the one, as he may be called upon to give his vote on points thereon depending, and interesting to the public welfare; the other, as it is his duty to attend to the price of wheat in the markets, and to see that bread is not raised upon the consumer beyond what the necessary profit of the manufacturer requires. It is indeed a subject fit for discussion, whether laws should at any time be laid down on the price of bread; and we could have wished that this very able writer had favoured us with a full investigation of this important question. But if laws be to be made, too great attention cannot be bestowed on the scale they will necessarily institute, and the reasons on which such scale is grounded. Since the first formation of the assize, almost every thing relative to the manufacture of bread is altered: the art of grinding, the art of baking, are both improved: the raw commodity is conveyed with greater ease from place to place; the consumption is increased; and the consumers, living in greater numbers together, afford more space for speculation than was permitted to former ages. On these accounts we are not surprised that the bakers should feel a little uneasiness under their present yoke; but, if they were permitted to new-model it, there is a danger that it may be transferred to the public. This was the incitement to our author to examine the tables of assize from the earliest times, and to point out what alterations should be made in them, as well from motives of justice as to suit the improvements of the age.

No one can doubt that a reasonable profit should be allowed to the miller and the baker, as long as the consumer of wheat thinks it necessary that it should be broken by the mill and pass through the heat of the oven. How these profits can be ascertained with any tolerable degree of accuracy by the legislature, we profess ourselves at a loss to determine; and the more we examine the tables already exhibited, and the improvements suggested, the greater are the difficulties which present themselves to us on every side. In the first place the price of wheat must be taken at an average: but, to do even this, the price of all the wheat used by the manufacturers of bread and flour in the district for which the assize is made should be ascertained at the same time. We need not say how little the attendance of a clerk of the market can perform on this occasion; nor can any thing be done to remedy this defect, unless a law be passed for the registering of every bargain on the sale and transfer of wheat. When this is done, the miller's profit may be defined: but here come in the questions of windmills, watermills, and stones moved by the power of steam. After examining all these points, and the nature of flour prepared for the baker, his art is to be studied, and the equitable profit will be found by calculators, who reason at all on the subject, to be not a little altered by the income-tax. Next, however, we have to consider the nature of the London and country retail trade; and where is the member of parliament, or justice of peace, who will

not hesitate before he determines on such a complication of interests? And, after all, the public would probably have bread cheaper and better, if, like meat, it were left entirely to itself, and the usual competition of tradesmen.

As far as any thing can be done by the interference of the legislature, the suggestions in the work before us are calculated for the public good, and with due regard to the baker's interest. The explanation of the tables is clear, and every point relative to them is fully explained. We shall hope that they will meet with every degree of respect; but at the same time we should not be surprised or sorry to find that the study of them led to the entire rejection of these and similar calculations.

ART. 35.—*Cursory Remarks on the Laws with respect to the Imprisonment of Debtors.* By Henry Beard. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Scott.

Every attempt to improve our laws, with respect to the relationship of creditor and debtor, deserves applause; and these cursory hints may be of use to the legislature, whenever it may again take this subject into consideration. Nothing can be more palpably absurd than the present plan of confining a debtor in prison indiscriminately, and at the discretion of the creditor; that is to say, of rendering misfortune and fraud liable to the same penalties; or, as it sometimes happens, of severely punishing an innocent man, and leaving a swindler in possession of his basely acquired gains. The object of these remarks is to point out the impropriety of permitting the creditor to be the judge in his own case, and of imprisoning his debtor, on the mere circumstance of a sum being due to him, and of thus rendering him incapable of discharging it. This incongruity has been introduced among us by an express departure from the old law of the land; and the times are favourable to the restoration of the ancient system, with suitable improvements. Thus varied, the creditor becomes the accuser, the debtor the defendant, the jury determines between them; and if there be any fraud on the part of the latter, in secreting his property, or if he fraudulently contracted the debt, he becomes a just object of punishment. If he can make it appear that he has not assets to discharge the debt, it is absurd to tie up his hands in prison, from all possibility of acquiring such; by which mean, moreover, his family becomes necessarily a burden upon society.

MEDICINE, &c.

ART. 37.—*An Inquiry into the Nature and Cause of that Swelling in one or both of the lower Extremities which sometimes happens to Lying-in Women. Part II.* By Charles White, Esq. 8vo. Common Paper, 3s. 6d.; fine, with coloured Plates, 4s. 6d. Mawman.

The first part of this Inquiry was published in 1784; and it is now continued, because the disorder has been confounded with others: new facts have occurred for the elucidation of the subject; and our author's opinion has been controverted. We noticed Mr. White's doctrine very early in our LVIIth volume, p. 157; and have followed his successors and antagonists, as they appeared. Mr. Trye's work occurs in the Vth volume of our New Arrangement; Dr. Ferriar's remarks in the XXVIIth, p. 67; and very lately, vol. XXXI. p. 345, Dr. Hull's extensive compilation. Mr.

White supposed the white elastic swelling to be owing to the rupture of a lymphatic, in consequence of its pressure by the gravid uterus on the edge of the pelvis, and a consequent obliteration or contraction of the vessel; Mr. Trye, to an inflammation of the lymphatic glands; Dr. Ferriar, to an inflammation of the lymphatics of the limb; Dr. Hull to an effusion of serum and coagulable lymph, in consequence of inflammation. Mr. White continues to explain and support his former opinion, while he combats those of his successors. He thinks the lymphatics are wounded by the sharp edge of the pelvis; and that the effusion of their contents between the peritonæum and the adjoining parts, by the distension, gives pain; the contraction of the wounded vessel, in consequence of the cicatrix, occasioning the tumor below. The time which usually elapses after delivery, before the disorder attacks; the absence of those appearances, which seem to prove a local inflammation, are the objections to Mr. Trye's opinion: and the absence of all the external appearances, which usually point out inflammation of the lymphatic vessels, equally opposes the system of Dr. Ferriar. To the creed of Dr. Hull the objections are still more striking: there is not the redness of general inflammation, and the affection is confined to one side, limited apparently by the absorbing system. We still, however, feel a strong repugnance to Mr. White's doctrine. Though our former arguments be in part done away, there is such a striking appearance of febrile attack, the distance of the time when the pain and swelling are first noticed is so considerable, while the injury may be expected to be followed rapidly by the morbid consequences evinced, that we cannot yet consent to think the cause explained. It is apparently proved, that the deposition is a febrile one, and on the lymphatic vessels; it is obvious that the matter effused is coagulated; but the cause of the fever, and of the peculiar direction of its crisis, is not yet explained; and the case still rests on a very uncertain basis. Whether one leg or both be affected, whether the same leg be so in successive pregnancies, or whether that side be peculiarly affected on which the woman lay during parturition, are points by no means decided. Mr. White's work is written with great complaisance and liberality,—a circumstance which gave us more pleasure, as it shows that the atmosphere on the north-western coast is not fully tainted with polemical virulence, or that, at least, some may escape its contagion.

ART. 48.—*Observations upon the Origin of the malignant Bilious or Yellow Fever in Philadelphia, and upon the Means of preventing it: addressed to the Citizens of Philadelphia by Benjamin Rush.* 8vo. 1s. Imported by J. Mawman.

Dr. Rush explains his opinion of the nature and cause of this fever in popular language, and gives very clear and judicious directions for preventing it. He thinks it the autumnal remittent, excited and exacerbated by miasmata, and by no means singularly contagious—opinions which we inculcated on reviewing our author's first description of the fever, when his own sentiments were very different.

ART. 38.—*Essays, Philosophical and Chemical.* By a Gentleman of Exeter. Crown 8vo. 3s. Cawthorn.

Several late inquiries, particularly Dr. Herschel's valuable paper,

and Mr. Leslie's observations on the subject, have brought to our recollection the present edition of these Essays, which we considered at their former publication as important. In a short preface, we find the motive of the editor to be the apparently laudable one of separating them from a miscellaneous collection; but, until that collection was out of print, we think it deserves another name;—yet this is foreign to the purpose.

We gave a short analysis of these Essays in our account of the general work. Later inquiries have added an importance to some parts, and suggested doubts respecting others. The cursory remarks on the present state of philosophy and science are rhetorical and amusing rather than profoundly scientific. Of the second essay, on meteorological phenomena, the foundation seems to be still more firmly established; and the whole appears to be a respectable scientific performance. Of the third, on light, we find some difficulty in speaking. Many new discoveries have suggested doubts of some of the leading principles; yet, on the whole, we see no great inconsistency between the author's system and the conclusions of Dr. Herschel, except in one or two points, where farther inquiries may bring the different opinions somewhat nearer. On the whole, these Essays are interesting, and, in a scientific view, valuable. We trust this edition may render them more generally known.

POETRY.

ART. 39.—*Idyls; in Two Parts.* By Edward Atkins Bray. 12mo. 4s. 6d. Boards. Rivingtons. 1800.

This little volume contains only the first part of the author's plan, comprehending descriptions of scenery and manners, which he says 'may be deemed Arcadian.' In the second part he intends to exhibit a picture of pastoral life, as it exists among ourselves. Bucolic poetry has seldom been attempted of late, and on this account these *Idyls* may pretend to some degree of novelty: but we cannot flatter him with the hope of popularity.

In the very nature of his subject, indeed, he encounters considerable difficulties. In this northern climate, and in the present state of society, it requires no small degree of imagination to embrace all the fabulous images of Sicilian scenery, or to relish all the simplicity of the ideas and feelings of our own rustics. 'We are not,' says Mr. Pope, 'to describe our shepherds as shepherds at this day really are, but as they may be conceived then to have been, when the best of men followed the employment.' Thus are the swains of pastoral poetry a kind of ideal beings, in whose destiny people in general take little interest; and the brevity and simplicity required in the construction of pastoral compositions preclude the exhibition of those various changes and interesting reverses which agitate the heart in the extended drama. It is only therefore by the most exquisite delicacy of expression, and the most finished polish of versification, that Arcadian strains can attract the public attention. For these recommendations we have looked in vain to the *Idyls* of Mr. Bray. He has very wisely avoided the tinsel decoration of many of the poems of the present day; but in endeavouring to be simple he becomes careless, and occasionally debased in his diction. We find none of those far-fetched thoughts which the Italians characterise by the name of *concetti*; but he has unfortunately deviated into the opposite extreme, and wearies by the

insipidity of common-place. How flat, for example, are the following couplets, selected from the first idyl.

' I know, my Amarillis ! how thy charms
Have stolen my faithless lover from my arms.
Tho' *thou* allur'd him, thee I ne'er should blame,
For every nymph would gladly do the same.
But that *you* treat him with a harsh disdain,
Augments, I own, my bosom's ceaseless pain.
It wounds my heart to see Amyntas grieve,
When *thou* his sorrows can'st so soon relieve.
Tho' happiness with him has fled my breast,
With thee, fair virgin ! may he long be blest !' p. 5.

Our readers will not fail to observe the grammatical inaccuracy of *thou* allur'd, and the incongruity of addressing the nymph in the singular and plural number within the short compass of three lines.

We could adduce a great variety of passages equally crude and incondite ; but it would be an irksome and invidious task. By quoting the whole of one of the shorter idyls, we shall enable our readers to exercise their own judgement upon the merits of the present writer.

' THE IMPRECATION.

' LYCUS, SYLVIA.

' *Lycus*. Here have I linger'd thro' the tedious day,
In hopes to see you——

' *Sylvia*. Wherefore, youth ! I pray ?

' *Lycus*. Still ask you, Sylvia ! why your steps I trace,
Tho' rare my lot to view your lovely face !
With scornful glances, with a brow severe,
Ah ! why refuse my vows of love to hear ?

' *Sylvia*. Because, young swain ! 'tis Reason's strong behest
From tyrant passions to defend the breast.

' *Lycus*. Ill can you guess the pleasures love bestows——

' *Sylvia*. Its pains, I know, oft rob one of repose.

' *Lycus*. Sometimes, 'tis true, a lover's lot is woe ;
Such, dearest maid ! you ne'er were born to know.
Fate stands prepar'd your every wish to crown ;
And tho' she frown, your smile would chace the frown.

' *Sylvia*. No, Lycus, no——than I a worthier fair
Has fallen thro' love a victim to despair.

My wond'ring eyes, but now, alas ! have seen
The change, how sad ! in Chloe's youthful mien !
Once sweetly blooming as the damask rose,
That opes its charms when orient morning glows ;
But paler now than lilies, drench'd with rain,
That droop their heads, and dying kiss the plain.

' *Lycus*. And may not love for this be wrongly blam'd ?

' *Sylvia*. In truth, young shepherd ! I the cause have nam'd,
As with my brother, through this grove, at night,
Erewhile I pass'd, by Cynthia's silvery light,
Near yonder tree, that spreads its branches wide,
Pensive reclin'd the hapless maid I spy'd.

She rais'd her head, she beat her swelling breast,
And thus her sorrows with a sigh express'd:

"Beneath the foliage of these bending boughs
The perjur'd shepherd breath'd his flatt'ring vows!

Here, where the false-one faith eternal swore,

Here am I left his treach'ry to deplore!

Once were my cheeks with smiles of joy o'erspread,

But now are humid with the tears I shed,

Saw he those tears the youth might ease my grief—

No; hope is vain: I ne'er shall find relief!

Not love, but pity would inspire his breast—

Pity!—ye Gods! I then were more distress'd!

Once, or his words were false, I own'd such charms

As fired his hopes to clasp them in his arms;

But now, though blasted by himself, the swain

Would loath their sight, and spurn them with disdain!"

"Think not with list'ning ear we stay'd to share

The inmost secrets of the hapless fair:

We fear'd, since powerless to afford relief,

Our passing steps might violate her grief.

When, bath'd in tears, the virgin left the spot,

Myself and brother hasten'd to our cot.

'*Lycus.* Nam'd she the youth who thus her love betray'd?

'*Sylvia.* No; but I guess, I guess who wrong'd the maid.

'*Lycus.* Prithee, fair Sylvia! tell your Lycus who,

'*Sylvia.* The perjur'd youth I see, methinks, in you!

'*Lycus.* Me! Sylvia, me!—

'*Sylvia.* Yes, Lycus! you.

'*Lycus.* But why?

'*Sylvia.* Confess your guilt—'twere folly to deny.

Wont not your feet to seek the lovely fair?

Yet now you never to her cot repair.

'*Lycus.* Sylvia! 'tis true, like every youthful swain,

A willing votary of the virgin train,

With her I frolic'd, and a thousand more:

Yet now forsake them as I sought before.

But blame not me; to you alone 'tis due—

Chloe I left, and all, sweet maid, for you!

'*Sylvia.* Whene'er a strange, or fairer face you see,

Your fickle heart as soon will turn from me.

'*Lycus.* No, never! Sylvia!—you, in happy hour,

First taught me love, and love's eternal power.

'*Sylvia.* Scarce can mine ear your flatt'ring words believe.

'*Lycus.* Hear then this oath—I mean not to deceive—

"If but to you I ever pledged my vow,

May heaven consume me as yon blasted bough!"

'Scarce ceas'd the youth ere with a thund'ring sound

Celestial vengeance smote him to the ground;

Whilst, nothing hurt, the awe-struck maid stood nigh,

Heard him his guilt confess, and saw him die.' P. 86.

ART. 40.—*Henry and Acasto; a Moral Tale. In Three Parts. By the Rev. Brian Hill, A.M. &c. Dedicated, by Permission, to the Right Hon. Lady Kenyon. Embellished with three Plates. 8vo. 5s. Boards. Stockdale.*

This tale has nothing but its morality to recommend it. Henry has received a religious education from his grandfather Acasto; he falls into bad company, and, after a night of intoxication, finds himself very ill the next morning. His grandfather visits him in this state; the young man repents and recovers. Acasto gives him money for charitable distribution; but, being decoyed to a gaming table, he loses the whole of it. A woman now meets him, and implores the alms which he has squandered; shocked at his misconduct, he hides himself among some ruins, and calls upon the fiends to punish him. Acasto finds him here, gives him some good advice, and is convinced of his intention of reforming. The old man dies soon after; and Henry lives to be a very pious man. The following passage may serve as a specimen of the poetry.

‘ Much did my Anna feel, and vainly tried
With studied care her struggling grief to hide:
Loud spoke the heaving sob, and stifled sigh;
The tear, that trembled in her crystal’d eye,
Trac’d its lone source from quick sensation’s bed,
And wid’ning rose, by springs of sorrow fed,
Burst its fair banks by one o’erflowing swell,
Swept her sweet cheek, and on her bosom fell,
Till, drown’d in floods, around my neck she flung
Her snowy arms, and on Acasto hung.
I can no more—At length, by time appeas’d,
Tempestuous grief within our bosom ceas’d;
Whilst peace and heav’nly resignation rose
In sweet succession to our keener woes;
And faith, submissive to Jehovah’s will,
Bid ev’ry murmur’ing thought and word be still.’ p. 32.

The description of Anna’s tears is the most ridiculous part of the poem; and the subsequent lines exemplify the decent tameness by which it is characterised.

NOVELS, &c.

ART. 41.—*Mysterious Husband. A Novel. By Gabrielli, Author of the Mysterious Wife, &c. 4 Vols. 12mo. 18s. Boards. Lane. 1801.*

In a series of events, both upon the continent and in England, is narrated the history of lord Clarencourt and his family; and it is related with sufficient interest to keep alive the curiosity of the reader. But the author has given countenance to a circumstance which deserves the severest reprehension—the elopement of the ladies Elmira and Idamia, at the suggestions of a stranger. Not content with making Tancred turn out, at last, a lord, as is the custom of modern story-tellers, our author outstrips them all, and dubs him a prince. But let not this good luck induce our fair young countrywomen to be guilty of the like indiscretion; for it is a thousand to one, that, instead of making them princesses, it would lead them towards the direct and almost certain road to infamy and ruin.

ART. 42.—*The Moral Legacy; or, Simple Narratives.* 8vo. 7s. Boards. Miller. 1801.

The author of this work has made use of an excellent mode for relating his little stories: but they are not, in every instance, conducted with exact propriety. He states, that, by the death of a worthy man, he became possessed of his papers. Here he finds the histories of many imprudent and guilty wretches, whom his friend had relieved or comforted. The moral of them all is a caution to beware of vice, from the misery that is consequent upon it. But in this respect the author has occasionally failed; and his love for virtue has caused him to overshadow the picture. In the narrative of the Envious Woman, the suicide committed by her husband, bad as she is, ought not to have been charged upon her: it was an addition to his own vices. We wish, however, in other respects, to give our praise to the performance; and as there are many other enormities not here touched upon, the writer may find plenty of materials for a second volume from the papers of his deceased friend which he has not yet perused.

ART. 43.—*Leonard and Gertrude; a popular Story; written originally in German; translated into French, and now attempted in English, with the Hope of its being useful to the lower Orders of Society.* 12mo. 3s. sewed. Cadell and Davies. 1801.

A moral story, ill translated.

MISCELLANEOUS LIST.

ART. 44.—*Jos. Hager, Univ. Pap. Doctoris, de Vár Hunnorum pariter atque Hungarorum Disquisitio: adversus Paulum Beregszászy, Philos. Profess. Patakiensem.* 4to. 1s. 6d. Escher. 1800.

Dr. Hager, in the year 1793, published at Vienna, under the title of 'New Proofs of Congruity between the Languages of Hungary and Lappländ,' a tract, in support of the arguments advanced by *Sanjovics* and *Hell*. This work—above three years after, and during his absence in Sicily, at the request of the king of Naples, to examine the manuscripts of *VELLA*—was attacked by professor *Beregszászy*, in a quarto printed at Leipsig. Accordingly the pamphlet before us is offered by the doctor in reply. That it displays a great variety of learning, and an uncommon share of ingenuity, no one can pretend to deny; but whether, in tracing the etymology of *VAR* through the languages of every region, 'è mœniis Carthaginiis ad Indos usque ac Seres, et a Seribus usque ad ultimos orbis Britannos,' doctor Hager has effected his object, we shall leave our readers to judge; premising, however, in respect to the subject of etymology, that no conclusion drawn from words upon paper is to be applied definitively to the same words when spoken; and likewise, that many words in different countries will be so differently pronounced, as scarcely to be cognisable for the same, either from deficiency, redundancy, or change of some letter or letters expressing elementary sounds; inasmuch as languages confessedly of the same origin often substitute one letter or elementary sound for another.

ART. 45.—*Jornandis Vindicie de Vár Hunnorum, Auctore P. Paulino a S. Bartolomeo, &c.* 4to.

To what Dr. Hager, in the preceding tract, had advanced, the learned father, in this, replies. From the abuse which our reverend critic had lavished on the late sir William Jones, and other writers of the Asiatic Researches, we looked not for any extraordinary terms of civility at his hands, even though he were addressing a friend; nor, on the perusal of his *Vindicie*, do we find our expectations frustrated; for, in no case, can we remember a like specimen of petulant and ferocious scurrility.—To Dr. Hager's reply, under the title of

ART. 46. *Ad prematurum Jornandis Vindicem Responsio. Auctore Jos. Hager, Univers. Pap. Doctore.* 4to. No Publisher's Name. 1801.

His motto is singularly happy:—

‘Βουλῶμαι σ’ εἰπεῖν κακῶς εὐ, βραχέα, μὴ λίαν ἀν ὡς
Βλεφάρα πρὸς τάναιδες ἀγαγὼν· ἀλλὰ σωφρονεστέρος,
Ὡς ἀδελφὸν οὐτά——.

‘(Paucis te reprehendam, non supercilium insolenter diducens, sed modeste ac sobrie, ut decet fratrem.—*Euripid. Iphigen. in Aulide*, v. 378, et seq.)’ p. 2.

The doctor prefaces his defence by a spirited introduction; and the abuse with which *Paulino* hath aspersed the first literary characters of the age, in *England, France, or Italy*, is animadverted upon, as the ground of inquiry, whether the talents and learning of this *Paulino* be sufficient to warrant his unparalleled arrogance? Having proved the reverse by flagrant examples, and such as must excite, if aught can, a blush of confusion, Dr. Hager thus closes his reply:

‘Nihil ultra adjiciam, nisi quod irreverentiæ in amicum etiam injuriam addideris, dum me de *Jornandæ* male exposito præmature arguis, quum ego totus in eo fuerim, non quid *Jornandis Hunivar* revera significet ut exsculperem, sed ut multiplices vocabuli *var* in variis idiomatibus significatus patefacerem, atque ex ea voce *Hungaris* nihil esse præsidii pro *Hunnica* prosapia demonstrarem. Unde contrariam *Assemanii*, aliorumque interpretationem (neque hanc ut meam) pro coronide ipse adduxi. At tu horum omnium parum sollicitus, me in alma, quam colis, urbe, coram toto literario senatu, coram amicis ac superioribus, velut turpi errore contaminatum, aut etymologica prurigine in transversum actum præpropere depingis, ut nil mirari debeas, si tanquam histrix, quæ aculeos non emittit, nisi prius lacescita, te impetierim, atque par pari referens, in florentissima hac universitate, coram amplo doctorum virorum, ac studiosorum adolescentum cœtu, in scenam protraxerim. Vale! meque in posterum benignius tracta, nisi gravioris certaminis experimentum capere desideres. Oxonii, Kal. Mart. MDCCCI.’ p. 7.

ART. 47.—*Thoughts on the Frequency of Divorces in modern Times; and on the Necessity of Legislative Exertion, to prevent their increasing Prevalence.* By Adam Sibbit, M. A. 8vo. 2s. Cadell and Davies. 1800.

If we were to take for granted every thing in this declamation, the fair sex of Britain must be lost to all sense of decency, and the present age is corrupt beyond all former example. The legislature is not likely to be affected by this overstrained morality, and large damages are, or ought to be, a sufficient check to adultery. There is a fashion in every thing. New punishments are now to be devised against a crime, which is probably more frequent only because the nation is more populous, and more notorious only because the class which is rich enough to obtain divorces is more numerous. Popularity is also acquired by a spirit of specious morality, that declaims against some vices abhorrent to itself, perhaps from a coldness of constitution; while the sordid appetite for wealth, the accumulation of mortgage upon mortgage, the grasping at every possible means of increasing fortune, is not considered as any counterbalance to overstrained panegyrics.

ART. 48.—*The Indian Glossary; consisting of some Thousand Words and Terms commonly used in the East Indies, with full Explanations of their respective Meanings; forming an useful Vade Mecum, extremely serviceable in assisting Strangers to acquire with Ease and Quickness the Language of that Country.* B. T. J. Roberts, Lieut. 8vo. 3s. 6d. Boards. Murray and Highley. 1800.

In the preface, the author proceeds too deeply in investigating the principles of acquiring information from languages: in three sentences he might have said that the words were collected as they occurred, and afterwards thrown into alphabetical order. This little *vade mecum*, however, will be useful to the occasional residents in that country, and to the readers of Indian history or transactions. Some parts might have been more full and more clearly explained; but we have discovered no very important error.

ART. 49.—*Kearsley's Traveller's Entertaining Guide through Great-Britain; or, a Description of the Principal and Cross Roads; marking the Distances of Places from London and from each other: with a concise Topographical History of the Cities, Towns, chief Villages, Antiquities, Seats, &c.* 8vo. 9s. Boards. Kearsley.

We consider this little work as a great improvement on the usual itineraries. Less full than the later editions of Carey, it however includes the more important roads, and adds some account of the state, commerce, and antiquities of each city of consequence; thus combining every useful purpose of an itinerary, with a short history of each place. We have examined it pretty carefully, and can only remark, as on another occasion, that the editor has not always consulted the latest accounts, or noticed the last improvements. These may be corrected in another edition, which we have no doubt the merit of the work will soon render necessary.